

**Women in Secretarial Jobs : A Study of
their Employment, Income and Working
Conditions in Lucknow City**

**THESIS SUBMITTED TO
KANPUR UNIVERSITY
FOR
AWARD OF THE DEGREE
OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
ECONOMICS**

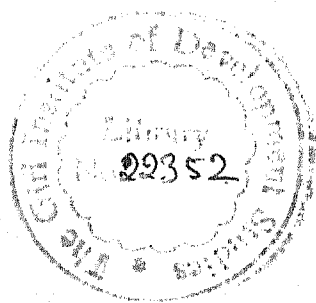
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**Giri Institute of Development Studies
Lucknow.
June 1993**

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled WOMEN IN SECRETARIAL JOBS : A STUDY OF THEIR EMPLOYMENT INCOME AND WORKING CONDITIONS IN LUCKNOW CITY is a bonafide and original work of the candidate, Ms. Nomita Nigam, herself and has been carried out under my supervision at the Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow. The candidate has put in more than 200 days attendance in the Institute as required under Ordinance 9 of the Kanpur University, Kanpur.

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LUCKNOW

PREFACE

The idea of linking women to development issues is scarcely two decades old. Since Esther Boserup's critical reflections first appeared in 1970, economists, planners and enlightened intellectual's concerned with developmental issues have increasingly veered to the view that women should be included in the development process and planning in an integral way. This would help firstly, to maximise the utilisation of human resources for development and secondly, to ensure that the benefits of development are equitably distributed between the sexes.

In India, a nation currently undergoing significant change in nearly every sphere, the lives of virtually all women are being altered in one respect or the other. Majority of females work within the household, which is not considered to be economically productive. Bulk of the female workers are absorbed in the rural sector or in exploitative industries and construction. Due to socio-cultural taboos women have been generally relegated to a subservient position with low wages and are subject to various types of exploitation.

A small but growing number of educated women are emerging in the labour market in the urban areas particularly in the secretarial jobs. These urban

educated female workers though better off than their rural counterparts face a number of problems like discrimination, occupational segregation, role conflict and lower status compared to male colleagues. Not much attention has been paid to working females in this sector and hence proper coverage needs to be extended to the problems of educated secretarial workers. Realising the complex and unique jigsaw puzzle that secretarial women represent this study makes a modest attempt in this direction.

The present study examines the problems of women in secretarial cadre focussing on their socio-economic, demographic and parental background, working conditions, discrimination and employer's bias, role conflict and impact of their joining the workforce on their status within the household, workplace and subsequently in the society. The study is based on a primary survey of 133 and 60 male secretarial workers in the city of Lucknow. The study throws light on the working and problems of an important and numerically large group of the urban female labour market and offers some suggestions in this regard. If it helps in improving their conditions in the long run I will consider my work well rewarded.

It gives me immense pleasure in recording gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. A.K. Singh, Professor at Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow, for his valuable guidance, useful suggestions and fruitful discussions throughout this study. But for his untiring and unstinted support, immense patience and keen interest in my work the success and timely completion of this study would not have been possible. My thanks are due to his wife, Mrs. Neelam Singh, for her moral support.

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CHAPTER I

Women, Work and Development : Problems and Issues

I.O Introduction

Prior to the 1960s much research was premised on the unwritten assumptions that women's economic role was unimportant, that gender division in the working population were not all that interesting and that everything that needed to be known about women workers in the work force could be captured in a few stereotypes. The earlier literature on developmental issues discussed the involvement of women in the development process rather tangentially. The attention was focussed mainly on structural and technological factors associated with the process of development. The most important work on the subject appeared in 1970 when Ester Boserup published her pioneering study Woman's Role in Economic Development. Boserup could truthfully begin with the words that "in the vast and ever growing literature on economic development, reflections on the particular problems of women are few and far between". Boserup showed how colonialism and the forms of modernisation it brought lowered women's status while raising men's, by imposing new patterns of sex roles on farming and trading, and by carrying such inequalities to the new industrial and urban sectors. Boserup's work

was the first step toward rectifying the problems of women, both through its own analyses, and by serving as a cornerstone for numerous further works. Many of the topics elucidated by her have become major themes in the literature on women and development. Since then there has been a plethora of research work on the basic problems and issues confronted by women and their integration in the development process. Research in this area was further catalysed by the U.N. General Assembly's declaration of International Women's Decade from 1975. Important studies were carried out on the subject in the ensuing years (Standing, 1977; Youssef, 1974; Blaxall and Reagan, 1976; Amsden, 1980; and Sokoloff, 1980).

These studies have highlighted the fact that women are discriminated against at every step starting from home to workplace. Various theories have been propounded to explain sex inequalities in the labour market. Particular mention may be made for the explanation for the disadvantaged position of women in the labour market in the studies by Blaxall and Reagan (1976), Amsden (1980), Sokoloff (1980).

Economic development associated as it was with industrialisation and urbanisation has adversely affected the female labourforce. The modern sector clearly prefers male workers to female workers who are

thus relegated to low-skilled and low paid jobs with marginal possibilities of promotion. Although, the status of women has improved immensely over time the basic problems of discrimination, wage differential and labour market segmentation still exist.

We propose in this chapter to review the international situation which will bring to the forefront the general and specific problems faced by the working women in the world as highlighted by various studies. These issues are discussed separately in the context of the developed and the developing countries to highlight the differences in the two situations. A brief survey of literature on Indian women's problems, status and related issues follow thereafter.

I.1 Developed Countries

A 'subtle revolution' in the traditional relationship of women to work and family has taken place in the developed countries. One indicator of this change is tremendous increase in women's economic activity. From World War II onward, there was rapid economic growth, which was accompanied by an increasing involvement of women in remunerative employment. The female work participation rates in developed countries range from a low of 50.2 per cent in the Federal Republic of Germany to a high of 75.3 per cent in

Sweden. In the United States of America and the United Kingdom the female work participation rates are 60.7 and 57.5 per cent respectively (Schmid and Weitzel, 1984). This increasing number of women workers was not only a result of excess demand for labour but was contributed to various factors which pushed women into the labour market like decreasing size of the family, the destruction of traditional neighbourhood systems and women's increasing participation in higher education. This pattern, however, is not consistent within the developed countries. An OECD study points out three broad groups: (a) where female employment has been steeply increasing like Australia, Canada, France, Sweden and U.S.; (b) where female participation rates are more or less stable i.e., Denmark and Finland; (c) where proportion of women declined in relation to the level maintained earlier like Belgium, Italy and Japan.

In developed countries various problems are faced by working females as segregation, discrimination, earning differentials and exploitation. Many studies are conducted to highlight the problems of women in developed countries (Davidson & Cooper, 1984; Schmid & Weitzel, 1984).

Women can be discriminated or have an unfavourable position in the labour market in several ways and segregation is one of them. Segregation is widely

prevalent in most industrialised countries. Due to distinct preferences and differences in the investment pattern in human capital certain jobs are assigned the title of being "female" jobs. Thus even though the labour force participation rates have increased substantially in most advanced nations, there occurs "crowding" in certain sectors. Women also face occupational overcrowding in "women's jobs" - those that are clerical and deal with health care, education, domestic work or food service. However, beyond these general trends, remarkable differences can also be observed between countries at comparable industrial development, both quantitative and qualitative. The pattern of segregation is similar in the sense that women are over-represented in service, clerical and social work and under-represented in administrative and manufacturing work.

Jonung's (1984) study of Swedish labour market is characterised by explicit existence of occupational segregation. The study points out that though female participation rates rose from 32.0 per cent in 1960 to 38.0 in 1970 and 42.2 per cent in 1975 but this employment expansion has primarily taken place in clerical and accounting work and service sector with 76.5 per cent and 72.2 per cent females respectively in these "female" jobs. Not only are women segregated by occupation, but also by position and earnings in

occupations where they compete on an equal footing. Though teaching is regarded since long as a "female" occupation higher positions of teaching categories are still dominated by men (Davidson and Cooper, 1984). In recent years women are going into men's jobs because the traditional "female" areas in the public sector are no longer recruiting. Jonung (1978) maintains that this entry is because no other jobs are available.

Similar segregation exists in U.S. labour market. The labour force participation rates of women have increased steadily from 33.9 per cent in 1950 to 51.2 per cent in 1980 (Larwood and Gutek, 1984). Most women are entering the few female dominated occupations such as clerical work and some professional occupations. In 1950, 62 per cent of clerical workers were women; in 1960, 68 per cent of clerical workers were women, in 1970, women were 74 per cent of clerical workers and in 1980 they were 80 per cent. This shows that women are clustered into relatively few occupations and that work is sex-segregated (Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Laws, 1979; Oppenheimer, 1968; Schrank and Riley, 1976; Coser, 1980). The extent of sex segregation is well-documented. Coser (1980) reported that 'one-half of all female workers in America can be found in 21 occupations and male workers in 65 occupations'. And Laws (1979) reported that 69 per cent of men would have to change jobs in order to eliminate sex-segregated work in the

United States. Beller (1982) observes that occupational segregation declined in the 1970's till 1977 and then increased because of recession and resulting unemployment. According to Meyer and Maes (1983) the situation is likely to remain.

Existence of 'horizontal segregation' is observed by Standing (1976). It is observed that in service and white-collar occupations, 'dead-end' jobs appeared to have high entry requirements than those from which promotion was possible. Here, women workers are seen to cluster in the lower end of ladder and diminish in number up the ladder of occupational hierarchies.

Female employment tends to be far more homogeneous than male in Great Britain. Chiplin and Sloane (1976) state that nearly 29.1 per cent of female employees are engaged in clerical occupations. Further, the above study observes that the vast bulk of female employees are concentrated in a very small number of occupational groups where the labour force is predominantly female. Hakim (1979) describes the pattern of differentiation in England and Wales during the period 1970-71. According to her the degree of over-representation of women in "female" occupations had fallen slightly, while the under-representation in "male" occupations had remained stable. The author concluded that male inroads into female's preserves have not been counter balanced by women's entry into typically men's sphere of work.

Jonung's (1984) comparative study of Sweden, Germany, U.S. and U.K. reveals that the degree of occupational segregation appears to be higher in Sweden than in other countries and possibly lower in Germany. In the U.S. and Sweden the degree of occupational segregation is falling, in Germany and Great Britain it seems to be constant or rising.

The Soviet Union was the first country in the world to declare the equality of men and women. The female work force almost doubled in the period from 1955 to 1970 - from 46 per cent to 51 per cent of the total work force (Narodnoe Khozyaistvo, 1979). Of the 290 major occupations listed in the 1970 Census, there are almost none in which female do not work, and in 156 of them women comprise the bulk of the work force (Yankova, 1975). Most women workers are found in the industrial sector, agriculture is the second occupation, and professions related to the humanities come third. Attwood and McAndrew (1984) state that the female labour in U.S.S.R. is subject to highly discernible patterns of horizontal and vertical segregation. In the U.S.S.R. the occupational segregation is increasing over the past 20 years (McAuley, 1981).

Women in Finland participate in the labour force more frequently than women in most other Western countries. In 1980 women made up nearly half (47 per

cent) of the Finnish labour force. The most remarkable change in women's employment has been the great increase since 1960 in the proportion of gainfully employed married women in the non-agricultural sectors (Haavio-Mannila and Jallinoja, 1980). Though women's participation in the work force is nearly of the same degree as that of men, they work in different industries and in different occupations. Jobs are clearly segregated by sex, there are men's jobs and there are women's jobs (Anttalainen, 1980). Thus 94 per cent of clerical workers and 89 per cent of social workers were women. The segregation has remained highly stable during past few decades. We thus find that segregation in the labour market is a general trend in almost all the developed countries ranging from one end to other.

Analysis of earning differentials between men and women has a long tradition in economic and sociological literature. During the past decades women in Western industrialised countries have greatly increased their labour force participation yet women's earnings expressed as a per cent of men's earning are still substantially below those of men. O'Neil's study (1984) shows that in 1980 the female-male wage ratio was 89.8 per cent in Sweden, 72.4 per cent in France, 71.4 per cent in U.K., 64.4 per cent in Germany and 60.2 per cent in the U.S. In four of the countries women's earnings have risen relative to men's over the past few decades,

but there has been virtually no increase in the United States. Doeringer and Piore (1971) theory of dual labour market distinguishes between two types of jobs for the two sexes. The existence of two relatively separate labour markets is considered to be an important determinant of the lower earnings of women. To the extent that women's occupational choices are restricted and there occurs an oversupply of candidates for women's jobs, women can be considered to be 'crowded' into these occupations (Edgeworth, 1922; Bergmann, 1974). According to this 'crowding hypothesis' wages tend to be lower for occupations which are highly feminised, since women compete amongst themselves for relatively limited jobs. Neo-classical theory suggests that women earn less than men because they have lower levels of human capital - mainly education, training and on-the-job experience - and therefore lower labour productivity (Mincer and Polachek, 1974).

Human capital theory stresses that individuals make schooling, training and other investment decisions on the basis of their perceptions of the costs of the available options and of the expected benefits associated with each (Becker, 1975; Mincer, 1962). Men and women get slotted into different roles because of difference in the anticipated lifetime work pattern. Thus, if women assume the primary role for child care and household chores they are naturally expected to

invest less in market skills and eventually their earnings are lower as compared to men who, guided by the instinct to provide the bulk of the family income, invest more in market skills which in turn results in higher earnings. Contrary to this Phelps (1972) and Arrow (1973) put forth the idea of statistical discrimination - where average differences between population subgroups are used as a basis for discriminating against all members in that subgroup. Employer's belief that women are on average more likely than men to be unstable, unreliable, etc. leads to such discrimination.

Marital status also affects women's earnings. Malkeils (1973) and Gordon and Mortan (1976) hold the view that employers may prefer single to married females as they expect higher absenteeism and turnover rates in the latter and this in turn depresses their earnings. Lack of education and training also affects the earnings of women adversely. Sawhill (1973) observed that one-third of the gap can be attributed to wage discrimination and two-third to productivity differences, the latter being attributed to non-labour market discrimination particularly to discrimination within the household. Unionisation also affects female earnings. Gunderson (1975) observes that unions have substantial impact on rise in the wages of females relative to males, especially for narrow defined occupation in the

same organisation where unions have been successful in closing almost half the gap.

While differences in wages can be shown to exist very easily, it is more difficult to prove discrimination when it comes to opportunities for promotion and exploitation within the labour market. The discriminatory social status of women in the work place itself has changed as little as that of their occupational and economic status. Women continue to face the possibility of sexual harassment as a common, everyday occurrence (Farley, 1978; Gutek & Morasch, 1982). MacKinnon (1979) notes that harassment occurs in the context of relationships of unequal power. Research indicates that sexual harassment is widespread and continues to intrude into the worklife of many female workers (Neugarter & Shafritz, 1980). Sexual harassment symbolizes the continued domination of men over women on a variety of work dimensions : economic benefits, occupational prestige, and personal control. Gutek survey (1981) in Los Angeles area, found that upto 53 per cent of women have been sexually harassed at work, 9 per cent quit job because of this and 30 per cent of women suffered some negative consequences of sexual harassment.

Some good news of the last decade was increase in the number of countries - from 28 in 1978 to 90 in 1983 - who have equal pay legislation on their statute books,

making it illegal to give men and women different wages for the same work. Since the 1960's governments of highly industrialised countries were increasingly put under pressure to implement positive actions and statutory protection of equal employment opportunity for women. The United States was the leading country to introduce equal pay acts, anti-discrimination laws and affirmative action rules. Great Britain and Scandinavian countries followed with similar rules and regulations and also institutions enforcing these rules, and the Central European countries - to some extent coerced by the European Commission in Brussels - also engaged in activities in this sphere in late seventies. Though anti-discrimination and equal opportunity legislations have been passed in these developed countries to upgrade the neglected half of the population yet the legislations are more often flouted than practised.

1.2 Developing Countries

For developing countries there do not exist the same wealth of statistics and studies concerning the employment situation for women as for developed countries. Studies which investigate the labour force participation rates of women and men are probably the most numerous (Anker and Heins, 1986, p.2). Few studies are available which look at the occupational structure

of women's employment in an international perspective, especially developing countries (Boserup, 1970; Youssef, 1974; U.N., 1980). The female participation rate varies in developing countries from a high of 39 per cent in Cyprus in 1980 to 6.80 per cent in Pakistan (Census of India, 1991). In 1985-86 in Bangladesh the participation rate for females was 6.25 per cent. In Indonesia 33.38 per cent of females are found active.

Since 1970, a debate has been underway concerning the effects of growth and change in developing countries on the well-being of women. Various scholars have observed that with modernisation and growth of new techniques of production in the developing countries the status of women has eroded. The primary reason for such a deplorable condition is the cumulative neglect by the concerned governments to integrate women into the development plans and policies.

Since agriculture forms the mainstay of the economies of the under-developed regions it is important to discuss the role of women in this sector. Women are seen to produce at least half of the world's output of food, mostly in developing countries, where they grow, harvest and prepare virtually all the food consumed by their families. In Africa they perform 60 to 80 per cent of agricultural work. In Asia and Africa almost all women who are employed work in agriculture : in

Mozambique, for example, 90 per cent of working women are engaged in production of food (Seager and Olson, 1986, p.14). As our study is primarily related to non-agricultural urban sector we shall focus briefly on the status of women in agricultural activities.

It has been observed by various studies Patai, 1967; Boserup, 1970; Mathiasson, 1974; Sanday, 1973; Reiter, 1975) that with the process of growth of capital in the third-world countries the status of women has deteriorated. Women's status was high during the early period, then passed through a period of constriction, before showing improvement in recent times. According to Boserup (1970) in the farm family the traditional division of labour was originally imposed by the sex difference itself. In most cultures of Asia and Africa Patai (1967) found restrictions on women. Only in sub-Saharan Africa did he discover indigenous traditions that permitted greater latitude to women. Mathiasson (1974) found that women in peasant groups in which women participate little in agriculture have low status. Both Patai's and Mathiasson's findings bear similarly to Boserup's theory of women's role in economic development.

Scholars are now in considerable agreement that women's status is relatively high in simple societies based on hunting and gathering or cultivation of small shifting plots. Johnson and Johnson (1975), from their

study of South American Indian Tribes in the Peru conclude that women's status was high where women work either with other women in cooperative work or where they share in complementary productive activities with their husbands. Sanday (1973) and Reiter (1975) report that women have high status where they have control over their production and opportunity to participate in communal decisions. Where under greater population pressure and certain natural conditions, dry plow agriculture emerged women typically have had a small part in production hence restricting their opportunity to engage in economic activity.

Two viewpoints emerge about what happen with this change. Some claim that modernisation may actually narrow women's options by removing them from production to purely domestic role or by overburdening them with dual responsibilities of becoming both paid workers and home workers (Engels, 1984; Sacks, 1974; Boulding, 1974; Tinker, 1975). However, others claim that the creation of factories, urbanisation and broadening of educational opportunity gradually add options and remove the barriers faced by women in the previous agricultural era (Patai, 1967; Goode, 1963).

Restructuring of the labour force which accompany the development process in the non-agricultural sector increases the disadvantages of women. The modern sector

takes the place of traditional and subsistence type rural employment and have taken away the economic activities which were traditionally the domain of women. Disadvantages of women labour force further increase when employers in the modern sector favour men as employees. In the Third-World countries, the proportion of the labour force which is working outside agriculture has increased rapidly in recent years. In 1960, 27.4 per cent of the labour force in developing countries was estimated to be working outside agriculture and by 1980 it had grown to 40.9 per cent (Hopkins, 1983, Table 2). But the question is that how much of non-agricultural employment goes to women? Durand's (1975) classical review covering the period 1946-66 states that women's share of all non-agricultural employment (including the self-employed and unpaid family workers) was relatively high in Latin America at 31.6 per cent and generally low in Arab and other muslim countries at 12.5 and 16.1 per cent respectively. According to the recent data given in ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1977-83, the lowest regional average is in North Africa and the Middle East as 12 per cent of non-agricultural labour force were women and the highest regional average is in Latin America and Carribean where women constitute 35 per cent of the non-agricultural labour force. In Asia, the average is about 27 per cent. Boserup (1970) found in her review that in nearly all developing nations women constitute higher percentage of persons in bazaar

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and service occupations than in modern occupations. For example in Ghana in 1970 women were 48 per cent of all non-agricultural workers but only 14 per cent of employees (Anker and Hein, 1986).

Non-agricultural activities are carried out both in the formal and informal sector. In the informal sector exploitation, low wages, sub-ordination and segregation and discrimination prevail. Illiteracy of these workers keep them away from reaping the fruits of development. Since these workers are spread into cities and towns there is limited possibility of unionism and fighting for their rights. Lack of any organisation prevents any progressive legislation for equality to be implemented in order to enhance the status of women. Activities in this sector generally require unskilled and manual labour e.g. construction, mines and transport. Sweet (1960) and Fuller (1961) report that in Syria women work as masons and in house construction. Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa, (1957) reports that African contractors employ women in road construction and in mines. Because females are unskilled, illiterate and accept low-wages they are employed in such manual works. Coughlin (1954) states that Vietnamese women are load carriers and dock labourers. Anker and Hein distinguish three types of manual workers : sales workers, service workers and production workers. Women as sales workers are non-existent in countries where

cultural norms favour seclusion of women (Middle East, Bangladesh, Afghanistan). In many developing countries, women in sales are less common among organised sector. This means that women sales workers are much more likely than men to be in petty trading in such developing nations as Ghana, Indonesia, Thailand, El Salvador, Peru and Bolivia (Anker and Hein, 1986). In Peru, women constitute 35 per cent of all sales workers in 1981 but only 25 per cent of sales employees. The ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics, (1965-83, Table 2B) shows that over the last 20 years there has been an increase in the proportion of women sales workers in Latin America and in Asia, but slight increases are experienced in Middle-East and North Africa except Cyprus where substantial increase is observed.

Another major category of women workers included in the informal sector are the domestic servants. Boserup (1970) states in her review that occurrence of domestic workers is a characteristic feature of countries at an intermediate stage of development. Women's share as domestic servants is particularly high in Latin America where in most countries they constitute well over half of these workers, ranging from 46 per cent in Guyana to 79 per cent in Nicaragua. According to Boserup (1970, p.104) 'the whole domestic sector grows with economic development and at the same time tends to, become more exclusively feminine.' In Guatemala in 1973, 64 per

cent of women in the service sector were maids (Chinchilla, 1977). It is also interesting to find that women are over-represented in service occupations even in countries where seclusion of women prevails.

In the formal sector women are very rarely trained as skilled industrial workers in developing nations. Men perform the skilled and supervisory work while women are relegated to unskilled and subservient jobs. Boserup (1970) notes that in Latin America where such training is provided to girls, 'it is frequently in trades with limited prospects for employment'. Report of The Inter-American Commission of Women concluded that the industrial training of women in Latin America scarcely went beyond needlework. This occupational pattern leads to a large differential in average earnings of men and women between skilled and unskilled work. Though the Equal Pay Legislations are prevalent in these countries but they are not always adhered to. Sometimes, to circumvent the law women are prevented from entering into certain well paid jobs. In Vietnam women doing specialised work were being paid only a small percentage more than women doing unskilled work whereas men are paid substantially more for specialised work than for the unskilled work. Boserup (1970) observes that in multi-racial and multi-national societies, the occupational pattern is based on race. The hierarchy of earnings based on race can be seen in

Kenya and Union of South Africa. Boserup (1970) observes that the principle of specialisation of labour based on race and sex is widely applied; white men take the administrative jobs, Asian men and white women the clerical jobs. African men and women the unskilled manual jobs.

The tendency for occupations to be segregated by sex is a real phenomenon which is deeply ingrained in most Third-World countries. Occupational segregation was calculated to be greatest in Latin America (0.49), followed by North Africa and the Middle-East (0.39), Europe and North America (0.37), Africa (0.30) and Asia (0.28) (Anker and Hein, 1986, p.96). According to the ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1983 (Table 2B) the proportion of women among professional, technical and related occupations is 46.5 per cent in Latin America and Caribbean, 34.3 per cent in Asia, 27.1 per cent in North Africa and the Middle-East and 23.8 per cent in Africa. According Anker and Hein (1986) 'women can be considered to be over-represented in professional occupations in most developing countries'. The major reason for women's relatively high share of professional jobs is their predominance in teaching and nursing. Boserup (1970) notes that this segregation is due to social constraints on women's activities. Chinchilla (1977) observes that in Guatemala in 1973, three quarters of women professionals were teachers.

Mauritius Central Statistical Office, 1975 reports that 69 per cent of professional women were teachers. Scott (1986) reports that in Lima, Peru, 74 per cent of women in the 'high-level' professional category were concentrated in two 'female' jobs - secondary school teachers and obstetrician.

Women in administrative and managerial jobs are rare in all regions of the world. Women's share in this cadre is extremely low i.e. less than 5 per cent in Middle-East and North Africa (except Egypt and Cyprus). 10 to 20 per cent of women are in this category in Latin American and Asian countries. The participation in this sector is reported to increase due to the growth of government employment where sex inequality is less apparent. Discrimination against women in developing countries is clear from the fact that their participation in these administrative and managerial jobs involving high decision making and greater responsibility, is low though slowly increasing.

In most developing countries women's share of clerical employment is much lower as compared to developed countries. In Africa and the Middle-East less than a quarter of clerical workers are women. Similar is the situation in Asian countries. Latin America comes closest to the pattern of industrialised countries with above 25 per cent women in clerical cadre. Boserup

(1970) observes that with economic development, the percentage of women in clerical occupations increases and as many Latin American countries have reached higher levels of economic development, we find relatively more women in clerical occupations there. In developing nations, clerical work still has not obtained the title of 'female occupation' as in many industrialised nations, due to the very reason of lack of literacy among female population.

Thus we observe that in developing countries technological transition and decreasing land ownership in agricultural sector has adversely affected the female workforce. In the non-agricultural sector the situation is better but far from being satisfactory. In the unorganised sector women face exploitation, low wages due to illiteracy and lack of any organisation to fight for their genuine rights. Women in the modern sector face disadvantage due to sex segregation and get relegated to low paid, low skilled jobs.

1.3 Women Workers in India : Structure and Problems

The vital role of women in Indian labour force and their contribution to our economy has been established beyond doubt. The experience of our national developmental effort of the past 40 years has shown that while it had led to a great leap forward in all spheres

of national life, the fruits of development have not gone equally to all sections of our people. The rural lot who constitute almost 80 per cent of the population have not been able to reap these benefits as the urban middle classes have. The weaker, the women, sections are still unable to assert themselves against the privileged, the men. The rural women suffer double discrimination as besides belonging to the vast majority of the rural poor, they also carry the burden of being women. In India one of the most severe indictments of the impact of development on women was contained in the 1974 Report of the National Committee on the Status of Women in India, aptly titled 'Towards Equality', which made an indepth study of the role, rights and opportunities for women in economic participation.

Before studying the problems of Indian women workers, a review of the existing situation, size and structure of the women work force is an essential prerequisite. The concept of a worker defined by the Census authorities as one engaged in 'economically productive' work is both vague and inaccurate as it does not include large proportion of the females who are involved in domestic chores that are nevertheless economically productive. The 32nd Round of NSS rectifies this defect to some extent by the introduction of another category of workers (Code 93) which includes women engaged in domestic duties along with free

collection of wood, fish, small games, etc. and tailoring and sewing for household use (Sarvekshna, April 1986).

The accounting of females as workers both in the Census and the NSSO suffers from serious enumeration and reporting drawbacks. According to Mitra (1981) the under-reporting of female work force participation rates in the Census varies from 30 to 40 per cent. He estimates that the participation of females in the informal sector is as high as 49 per cent as against 15 to 17 per cent in the case of males. Jain and Chand (1982) find that the measurement of female labour force participation and analysis suffer from gross "under enumeration, inadequate attention to unpaid family labour, own production and household work and relationship between them." Further they add, "There are poor conceptualisations of female work styles, mistaken perception of females economic roles by respondents and interviewers."

In 1983 NSS reports 28.38 per cent rural and 13.18 per cent urban women in the work force, whereas, the Census (1981) figures shows only 16 per cent and 7.28 per cent respectively. The fact that emerges is that the female participation is low whether shown by Census or by the NSS as compared to the male participation rates both in the urban and rural sector. The reasons

behind such abysmally low participation of women in the work force is their illiteracy and social mores. Even the females who have already entered into the workforce suffer from segregation, gender discrimination, wage differentials, exploitation, etc.

Structural composition of the female workforce shows that 78.1 per cent of the females are absorbed by the agricultural sector and only 21.9 per cent of the females were in the non-agricultural sector (Census 1991). The largest percentage (43.56) of women workers work as agricultural labourers. 17.26 per cent of the total female labour force are in the category of other workers which includes services.

The literature on women workers in India reveals that the problems and status of women in our country differ from sector to sector and occupation to occupation. Development process is seen to affect women in different sections differently. In the agricultural sector there is a clear sexual division of labour with male and female tasks and significant male-female earning differentials exist. Introduction of new farming techniques, landlessness, illiteracy and social taboos all combine to adversely affect the participation of females. Middlemen exploit females in the informal sector because of illiteracy and lack of unionism. No legal provisions can be implemented in this sector because women have no organisation to fight for their

rights. In the formal sector females are segregated into low unskilled, low paid jobs. Employers hesitate to employ females due to higher absenteeism and turnover. Women in the services sector differ in their problems. Here we find less discrimination as compared to other sectors. The problem of role-conflict between her dual role of wage earner and home maker is experienced by female employee in non-manual jobs. In the following paragraphs we propose to highlight the problems of women workers in different segments.

1.3.1 Unorganised Sector : Given the labour market conditions and the existing socio-economic environment, a majority of women are to be found in the vast rural and urban informal unorganised sector. According to an estimate by the National Commission on Self Employed Women, 94 per cent of the total female work force operates within this highly exploited sector. Employment in this sector is characterised by low pay, long hours of work, low productivity, a high incidence of casual labour mostly doing intermittent jobs at extremely low wages or doing their own account work at very uneconomical returns, low skill and lack of any job security. There are few trade unions or labour organisations to facilitate the mobilisation of women workers and knit them into a conscious workforce. This is also due to the varied nature of occupation in this

sector, inadequate legislation and ineffective enforcement of legal safeguards to protect females.

The vast majority of rural women in the unorganised sector is landless. They work in the fields, they look after the animals, they are actively involved in the production of food, food processing, forestry and rural industry (Shramshakti, 1988). They participate in construction industry, labour in factories, work in mines and carry out trade and vending (National Perspective Plan for Women - 1988-2000 AD). In addition to this they are deemed to face the burden of bearing and rearing children, collecting and fetching water, gathering firewood, cooking and cleaning activities. They are not a homogenous group. What they have in common is deprivation and discrimination. A distressing fact regarding this sector is the absence of adequate and reliable data regarding their number, socio-economic and working conditions, degree of exploitation and other specific difficulties. This is particularly disturbing as 94 per cent of women workers belong to the unorganised sector (Singh and Vitanen, 1987).

1.3.1.1 Agriculture : Agriculture occupies a key position in Indian economy and women in turn contribute substantially in this area. Women participate in different processes of agriculture like sowing, transplanting, harvesting and threshing. They comprise

60 per cent of all agricultural workers. The many problems faced by women in this sector include denial of minimum wages and equal wages, victimisation for lodging complaints and unionising, inaccessibility of redressal machinery, travel cost and loss of earnings (Shramshakti, 1988). In most states, the minimum wage is fixed differently for the two sexes. Women's work is considered 'light' hence wages are lower than men's work which is considered 'heavy'.

The work performed is seasonal and women have few alternatives for income generation. The problem is further exacerbated by the very low wages they receive i.e. 'Rs.4 per day, although the range went from a half a kilo of grain for a full day's work in Maharashtra, to Rs.20 per day in paddy fields in Kerala and Assam' (Shramshakti, Report of the Commission on Self-Employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector, 1988). Low wages for women exist because of the unorganised nature of work, the ease by which hired labour can be substituted for family labour and seasonal nature of the job.

National Committee on the Status of Women (1974) states that the root cause of poverty and subsequent exploitation of the agricultural labourers is landlessness, lack of organisation and inequality in status. Women's access to ownership of land is extremely limited. None of the Indian legal systems

recognises wife as a joint owner of husband's property. The biggest blow to women's struggle for resources was the policy of land reforms which gave land titles to men and subsequently extension, training, credit, technology and inputs were disproportionately channelled to men. Privatisation of land through agrarian policies eroded women's traditional usufruct rights to communal land. Agrarian reforms that generally aim at more equitable distribution of land have invariably led giving land to male head, further strengthening the institutional barriers to women's access to state institutions and resources as their legitimacy as farmers is not recognised. Macro studies (Prasad, 1974; Rangarao and Attari, 1985) have shown that the number of women tenants and cultivators have reduced and the number of landless women labourers has increased. The land reforms have adversely affected the ownership of land by women even in the areas where women traditionally did own some land. Sardamoni (1987) shows that in some parts of Kerala after land reforms women were thrown out of their lands and they became landless agricultural labour even though matriarchal system prevailed.

The Green Revolution and subsequent mechanisation of agriculture have adversely affected the status of women in agriculture. Technology extension and modern inputs are male biased leaving aside females. Due to

illiteracy, lack of training and skill to operate new technology women are relegated to low skilled, low paid jobs.

1.3.1.2 Manufacturing : Next to agriculture manufacturing constitutes the single biggest source of employment to women. During 1971-81, the proportion of females engaged in this sector has recorded a significant increase in both rural and urban areas. The sex ratio among manufacturing workers in rural areas increased from 270 in 1971 to 380 in 1981 and in urban areas, from 260 in 1971 to 330 in 1981 (Shramshakti, 1988).

The manufacturing sector has witnessed shifts in favour of non-traditional industry. Women have lost their share in many industries with the introduction of new technologies as female workers are being replaced by male workers (Banerjee, 1988).

A dominant form in this sector is home-based production carrying out a variety of activities like making bidis, food processing, garment workers, agarbati workers, spinners, toy making, potters, basket makers, lace makers, zari and zardozi workers. Home-based workers are largely women and since they combine domestic work with home-based productive work for cash income, the latter is normally referred to as a "hobby" or in a few enlightened cases as a "subsidiary activity"

which "supplements" the income of the male bread winner. Due to this 'invisibility' the data available is not reliable (Bhatt, 1987). In 1981, Census, the number of workers listed under household industry is 8.8 million whereas according to the Ministry of Labour Statistics the number of bidi workers alone is 2.2 million. The Commission on Self-Employed Women (1988) is of the opinion that the figure of 8.8 million is a gross under estimation.

Amongst the home-based women workers, apart from those doing their own account work, there is a large section of women doing piece rate work. Bhatt's (1987) study points out that the employer is in advantageous position to exploit the workers because of negligible overhead costs, no investment in tools or machinery, no trade unions and no legislations to protect the workers and fight for their rights. The wages are very low as shown by many studies (Bhatt, 1981; Rao and Husain, 1979; Singh, Mathur and Shrimali, 1975; Baud, 1983; Mies, 1982). Children often assist their mothers in work hence higher incidence of child labour is found in this sector. Kelles-Vitanen and Singh (1987) point out that certain common features of these workers are extremely low wages, long and erratic working hours, fragmentation of work force and absence of any form of workers organisation. Usha Jumani (1987) in her study of self-employed women observes that they are a shade

better than piece rate workers because they have control over raw materials and tools and above all do not have to depend upon greedy middlemen for providing a market for their goods.

Report of the Commission on Self-Employed Women, (1988) covers entire gambut of poor, unprotected labouring women in the self-employed and informal sector of our economy. The aim being to make the government aware of the plight of these workers and perceive the need to implement and pass legislation to protect the women workers. Two notable organisations, namely, Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) and the Working Women's Forum, have come to the forefront to take up the cause of these vulnerable workers.

I.3.1.3 Construction Workers : Women engaged in this industry are one of the most exploited group of workers. According to the 1981 Census out of a total of 36 lakh construction workers, 10 per cent were female and the NSSO (1983) records 65 lakh workers of whom 15 per cent were females. They suffer from the temporary and shifting nature of this work, hardships of great physical labour in all types of weather and exploitation at the hand of middlemen and contractors. They toil hard, earn meagre wages, and struggle hard with insecurity looming over their heads (Shramshakti, 1988). They are forced to lead a nomadic existence with

a contractor not fulfilling their contractual obligations of providing primary amenities like health, shelter, education, ration cards, toilet facilities, etc. The construction workers are covered under various acts like the Minimum Wages Act, the Contract Labour Act, 1970 and Inter-State Migrant Workers Act, 1979, but these are more flouted than enforced. The absence of any organisation further perpetuates exploitative conditions of the workers. Various studies have pointed out these loopholes. Sinha and Ranade's (1975) study dealing with the construction workers of Delhi and Bombay show that male-female earnings are different for the same kind of work. Another study by Gangrade and Gathia (1983) observes that low pay, sexual harassment and lack of access to resources is prevalent, while welfare amenities are also lacking. Another study by Manohar, Shobha and Rao (1983) in Warangal reveals that the contractor also uses the workers for political ends. About 90 per cent of the workers who could vote were directed to cast their votes in favour of a particular candidate. Mathur's (1989) study investigated the conditions and quality of working life of construction workers and states that "construction industry remained unnoticed for long. Now the time has come when the country is marching ahead in the 21st century, the unorganised should also acquire organised form and the workers should be given equal opportunity to improve

their life as a whole and the quality of working life in particular".

1.3.2 Organised Sector : This sector includes all public sector establishments and non-agricultural private sector establishments employing 10 or more persons. It is governed by various laws and regulations and detailed information regarding workers is collected regularly by the Ministry of Labour. Even though over the years the female workforce in this sector has been steadily increasing, it still accounts for only 6 per cent of total women workers. The main source of employment in the organised sector are factories, mines and plantations and services and professions.

1.3.2.1 Factories, Mines and Plantations : Though total employment in factories has been increasing steadily, women's employment in this sector has slowed down in recent years. In factories and plantations the number of women workers has increased but in mines the figure has fallen from 1.09 lakhs to 0.75 lakhs in 1982 and further to 0.72 lakh in 1983.

The declining trend of women's employment in some industries and mines is partly due to adverse effects of protective labour laws for the welfare of women, the policy of equal remuneration and structural transition in the economy leading to modernisation and

nationalisation of production techniques. The laws have regulated the employment of women in dangerous occupations. There is prohibition of employing women between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. and special permission has to be taken to do night duties. This poses problem for the employers to employ women. Besides this Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 is applicable to all female workers. As these provisions require larger costs for the employer, he is dissuaded from recruiting women (Savara, 1986). Shramshakti, Report of the Commission on Self Employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector, (1988) states that : "The abolition of underground work by women in mines (1929) and prohibition of work in night shifts (1952) and introduction of new improved technology, particularly after the nationalisation of coal mines has led to considerable decline in the share of women workers in mines. In fact the introduction of new technology in mines has led to 'voluntary' retirement and "golden handshake" for women resulting in 30 per cent decline in female workers in coal mines in eighties".

The implementation of Equal Remuneration Act of 1976 has also resulted in decline or stagnation of women in this sector. The equalisation of wages between men and women is responsible for the retrenchment of women workers who were in the job due to their cheap remuneration. One way in which this law is flouted by

the employers is by assigning certain work the title of 'female work' and thus keeping separate wages that is lower than that of males for that work. Occupational pattern of women employees indicates that women are concentrated in female and unskilled work.

Further introduction of improved technology brings down the employment of women in this sector. Women being largely illiterate and untrained have little scope of learning how to operate the new machines or technical devices and are displaced easily by men. Studies (Joshi and Joshi, 1976; Department of Social Welfare, 1977) show that female employment has suffered due to lack of skill and training. In cotton mills female employment has reduced by 40 per cent. Apart from illiteracy, lack of training, their restricted mobility has also affected women's competitiveness.

I.3.2.2 Services and Professions : A number of factors are responsible for the emergence of women in non-traditional services and professions in the post-independence era, viz., constitutional guarantee of non-discrimination and equality of opportunity in matters of employment, expansion of women's education, gradual change in social values relating to women's paid employment among urban middle class due to growing economic pressure, and expansion of the tertiary sector. Kapur (1970) states that the majority of women in this

sector are from middle class families and they join the labourforce for economic reasons. Srivastava's (1978) study on working and non-working women focussed on the causes and consequences of employment among educated married women. Rising prices, increasing cost of education and housing coupled with increasing inflationary pressure necessitate more than one earner in a family. Though due to effective implementation of labour laws male-female earning differentials are absent in this sector yet scope of job segregation does exist. The problem of job monotony and task segregation has been dealt by Sunder (1981). Chaturvedi's (1985) study on women administrators and Shukla's (1982) study on women teachers have focussed on the issue of discrimination, job satisfaction and sex segregation. Women are concentrated in occupations which are usually at the lowest rung of the ladder. It has been observed that 45 per cent women workers are concentrated in nursing and teaching. Clerical and related works have been assigned the title of "female occupation". Teaching has the heaviest concentration of women in the labourforce as it requires relatively less training and is accorded high status in the society. Teaching is approved by society for women as they can easily combine their home roles with it (Towards Equality, 1974, p.76). Low incomes dissuade men from entering this profession. Singh's study (1981) throws light on the fact that nursing has not acquired a high status in the hierarchy

of professions because the material benefits are low and societal valuation of nursing is not positive. Papola's (1982) study highlights that 72.7 and 17.5 per cent of females in Lucknow were in teaching and nursing profession respectively. Shukla's (1982) study states that problems as that of interaction, of maintaining identity, of career building and victimisation are faced by women teachers in male dominated institutions.

Women in higher services as administrators do not face wage differentials and blatant discrimination, but they do face the problem of role conflict. A study by Talwar (1984) presents a comparative picture of working and non working women's conditions of work and the impact of their being in employment on their status at home. Jain (1988) aims to explore the sociological dimensions of the problems of status formation and role conflict and how the working women perceives it. Lalitha Devi's (1985) study on white-collar workers deals with the impact of work on the status of women at home and in the society. Women have to bear the dual burden of wage earner and of home maker. Dhingra's (1982) study shows that conflict between the traditional and modern role is being faced increasingly by professionally trained women which creates problems of adjustment both at home and at the place of work. Large number of studies have focussed on this problem of role

conflict and its various manifestations in India (Kapur, 1970; Srivastava, 1978; Talwar, 1984; Jain, 1988).

In recent years a new field has been opened to females that had hitherto been the male preserve i.e. entrepreneurship. But various problems such as lack of adequate finances, technical knowledge, lack of managerial skills, inadequate raw material, inadequate marketing facilities are being faced by women entrepreneur. But government policies of Entrepreneurial Development Programme, special institutional finance/interest, subsidy etc. is attracting more and more females into this field.

A series of social legislation has been enacted from time to time for raising the status of women in the country. The governmental efforts have placed special emphasis on the welfare of women and tried to cater to their special requirements. The early Five Year Plans, however, failed to integrate women into the developmental process. The planners and policy makers relied on the "trickle down" theory of development, wherein it was assumed that the prosperity in one sector, in one class, or growth at macro level, would spread gradually to all others. The result was that planning benefitted women only incidentally and residually and often bypassed them. The growing widespread disenchantment with the "trickle down" approach led the planners to recognise women as a

specific critical category requiring special attention in development strategies.

The Planning Commission set up a Working Group in 1978 on Employment of Women to examine the ways and means of increasing the employment of women. The Group scrutinised statistics on existing programmes/schemes of the Government pertaining to women, development of self-employment and entrepreneurship among women, skill development, and development of cadres for promoting employment of women. It was in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85), that is, after three decades of planning that a separate chapter on 'Women and Development' was provided in the Plan document and a variety of programmes were taken up under different sectors of development to ameliorate the working conditions of women and to raise their economic and social status. The Seventh Plan laid stress on inculcating confidence among women and bringing about an awareness of their own potential for development, as also of their rights and privileges.

A Commission on the Status of Self-employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector was constituted by the Government of India in 1987 to make a comprehensive study of the working and the living conditions of women in poverty.

Inspite of all these efforts to uplift the women folk, the gender differences persist in our economy. The labour market is not neutral to men and women. Gender inequalities exist in almost all the sectors whether organised or unorganised. The inequality based on gender is manifested in male and female earning differentials which has been revealed by many studies. With the objective of correcting the imbalances and bringing the Indian women to the forefront the Perspective Plan for Women, 1988-2000 is a recent effort at a long term overall policy guided by the Constitutional directives. The Perspective Plan views women not as passive beneficiaries of the development process but as a source of unique strength for reaching national goals.

I.4 Present Study

The problems of working women in India have been studied from various perspectives. Studies on discrimination and informal sector covering both urban and rural areas are numerous. There is plethora of research on rural females as their problems are much pronounced due to their illiteracy and larger number. Researchers have also focussed their attention on women in the professional segment of our job hierarchy. Surprisingly, there is paucity of studies and researches on women in white collar secretarial cadres and this can

be attributed to less women being in this sector in the past. But today, we find that secretarial women are the vanguard of the attitudinal revolution in the society as well as being at the forefront of the changing occupational structure of our economy. The growing numbers of educated women in the secretarial jobs in urban areas have overturned myths about women. Hence this study was carried out with the intention to fill this lacuna in women studies.

1.4.1 Objectives

The major objectives of the present study are the following :

1. To study the growth of women workers and changes in their occupational pattern in U.P. in general and Lucknow in particular.
2. To study the general socio-economic characteristics of female secretarial workers in Lucknow.
3. To study the factors that influence the extent of participation and variations in women's employment in secretarial jobs both in private and public sector undertakings.
4. To observe the working conditions, earnings and problem faced during employment and the extent of

participation in Union activity and the level of job satisfaction achieved.

5. To study pre-entry discrimination in education, training for higher skills and post-entry discrimination such as promotion, wage differentials, employer's bias, etc.
6. To study the contributions of secretarial workers to household income and its impact on their status.
7. To study the extent of role conflict that the secretarial workers face in carrying out the dual role of wage earner and home maker.

1.4.2 Hypotheses : The study proposes to test the following hypotheses:

1. Economic need and rising educational levels are the main factors influencing female participation in the work force.
2. A major proportion of women secretarial workers belong to urban middle class families.
3. Differences in male-female earnings are due to differences in education, experience and on the job training.

4. Discrimination in wages are more apparent in the private sector than in the public sector.
5. Job preference of women is guided by factors like :
 - a) Level of earnings
 - b) Attitude of husband/father
 - c) Non-transferability
 - d) Better prospects
 - e) Retirement benefits etc.
6. Employer's bias operates due to more absenteeism among female workers.
7. Opportunity of employment is same for both men and women in the public sector, at least legally.
8. The extent of female participation in trade union activity is expected to be low as compared to males.
9. With full time jobs, the secretarial workers are prone to experience role-conflict.
10. Being in job has favourable impact on the economic and social status of women and their independence.

I.4.3 Design and Methodology : The study is based upon a sample survey of selected male and female workers in secretarial jobs both in the public and private sector in Lucknow city. For the present study, a sample of 30 establishments and 150 female workers was taken by using the technique of stratified random sampling from

the list available from the records of Directorate of Employment. In the first stage these establishments were grouped into three categories namely : (a) Central/quasi Central government, (b) State, quasi state and local body and (c) Private establishments. From each category 10 establishments were randomly selected and a random sample of 5 female workers from each establishment was taken. During the survey out of 150 sampled female respondents only 133 could be contacted. For the purpose of comparing male and female workers, a limited sample of male workers in similar occupations was also taken from the sample establishments. This sample of 60 male workers is thus not representative of the male or total workforce of establishments, but only

Table I.1 Number of Establishments and Workers Employed by Type of Organisation in Lucknow City, March 1987

Type of Establishment	No. of Establishment	Number of Workers =====		
		Male	Female	Total
Central/Quasi Central Govt	321	247273	12019	259292
State/Quasi State/ Local Body	453	88589	5447	94036
Private (Act) Establishment	251	4819	2274	7090
Total	1025	340718	19740	360418

a 'control' sample occupationally comparable with the sample of women workers. Further, to make the study more useful a short questionnaire concerning employer's perception was also prepared and 30 employer respondents from 30 establishments were interviewed and their views were collected on the situation of female and male workers of their department/organisation. Details of the establishments and the sample design are given in Table I.1 and I.2 respectively.

Table I.2 Details of Sample Design

Type of Establishment	Establishment Selected	Number of Workers =====		
		Male	Female	Total
Central/Quasi Central Govt	10 (3.1)	20 (8.0)	46 (0.4)	66 (0.02)
State/Quasi State/ Local Body	10 (2.2)	20 (0.02)	50 (0.9)	70 (0.07)
Private (Act) Establishment	10 (4.0)	20 (0.4)	37 (1.6)	57 (0.8)
Total	30 (2.9)	60 (0.02)	133 (0.7)	193 (0.05)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the total.

I.4.3 Chapter Plan : In Chapter I we have focussed on the problems and status of women workers as highlighted

in earlier studies covering the developed and the developing countries with particular reference to India. The objectives, hypotheses and methodology of the present study are also discussed. Chapter II focusses on the growth and occupational pattern of urban female workers in Lucknow district.

In Chapter III we have discussed the social and demographic characteristics, the employment and occupational status of their household members, the parental background of the respondents along with the size and structure of the family and residential characteristics of the respondents. Chapter IV throws light on the asset ownership, income and expenditure levels and respondent's contribution to family income and expenditure.

In Chapter V factors motivating respondents to enter the world of work, occupational history of respondents, nature of work and extent of union participation are discussed. Various parameters to gauge the extent of discrimination by employers and male colleagues have been discussed in Chapter VI. The chapter also examines the level of job satisfaction. Domestic duties and the extent of husband's help, and the attitude of family members towards respondents' career orientation are highlighted in Chapter VII. We have also analysed the respondents level of adjustment

between dual role of a earner and home maker and the extent of role conflict amongst them.

Differences between the socio-economic characteristics, working conditions, job selection and satisfaction, etc. are discussed in Chapter VIII. Employer's perception regarding female and male workers are also analysed in the same chapter.

In the last chapter the salient findings of our study are summarised and various suggestions for improving the conditions of secretarial women workers are offered.

CHAPTER II

Growth and Occupational Pattern of Female Workers in Lucknow

II.0 Introduction

Recent years have brought a great change in the life of women all over the world, influencing their attitudes, values and aspirations, leading to greater participation in all walks of life. One of the main enduring consequences of the recent social revolution for women has been the relaxation of taboos that earlier affected their entry into work and enabled them to enter new professions which were closed to them earlier. Urbanisation, education and employment which are the contributors of social revolution, have provided them with new avenues to express and assert themselves.

Because of differential impact of development, a macro analysis of women's economic participation purely in quantitative terms cannot tell the whole story. Any appraisal of women's economic role has to be separated for specific segments, differentiated by regions, occupations, etc. Thus, the main objective of this chapter is to discuss the workforce participation rates and occupational pattern of female workforce in Lucknow - which will provide a background for our detailed study

of female secretarial workers in the city. The study of growth and occupational pattern will highlight the changes that have occurred due to spread of education and economic development.

The analysis in this chapter is limited to women main workers in the census of 1971, 1981 and 1991. The year 1961 was not taken for analysis as the workforce data of 1961 is not comparable with that of the latter two censuses due to changes in definition of workers. Our analysis is based on data of Lucknow urban district as a whole as detailed data of Lucknow urban agglomeration were not available. However, this does not affect our study seriously as there is no other town of substantial size in Lucknow district. In fact, the total population of Lucknow agglomeration accounts for 95.1 per cent of total population of Lucknow district (urban). For comparative purposes data for Uttar Pradesh as a whole has also been given. The data for 1991 is used only in a limited way as detailed data on workers for the year has not been released.

II.1 Work Participation Rates

Work participation rates are given in Table II.1. The table shows the female work participation rates (FWPR) of rural and urban workers in Lucknow district and U.P. in 1971, 1981 and 1991. It is significant to

Table II.1 : Workers Participation Rates by Rural and Urban Areas by Sex in Uttar Pradesh and Lucknow District in 1971, 1981 and 1991 (Main Workers)

Areas	1971			1981			1991		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
<u>Rural</u>									
1. U.P.	52.99	7.27	31.48	50.98	5.90	29.71	49.38	9.14	30.47
2. Lucknow Dist.	55.60	3.73	31.71	54.09	3.54	30.69	52.35	9.16	32.37
<u>Urban</u>									
1. U.P.	47.85	3.10	27.67	47.30	2.99	26.99	45.92	4.57	26.80
2. Lucknow Dist.	47.92	3.56	27.81	47.72	3.70	27.70	45.14	5.52	26.74
<u>Total</u>									
1. U.P.	52.24	6.71	30.94	50.31	5.40	29.23	48.68	8.24	29.74
2. Lucknow Dist.	51.67	3.64	29.73	50.71	3.62	29.12	47.86	6.90	28.86

- Source :
- i) Census of India, 1971, Series 21, U.P., General Economic Table, Part II B(i).
 - ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B(i).
 - iii) Census of India, 1991, Series I, Provisional Population Totals, Workers and Their Distribution, Paper 3 of 1991.

observe that overall female participation rate is very low in U.P. (8.24 per cent) as well as in Lucknow district (6.90 per cent) as compared to male participation rates. Female work participation rate is marginally higher in urban Lucknow (3.70 per cent) as compared to Lucknow rural (3.54 per cent). The figures for 1981 show a general decline in FWPR both in U.P. and Lucknow district except in case of female workers of Lucknow urban where a marginal increase over the decade is observed from 3.56 per cent in 1971 to 3.70 per cent in 1981.

The trends observed for 1981-91 period are different as compared to the trends observed for the period 1971-81 in case of female participation rate. In the rural areas of Lucknow FWPR declined from 31.71 to 30.69 per cent in the decade 1971-81 and thereafter increased to 32.37 per cent in 1991. In case of urban areas FWPR lower but has risen in both the decades. In the case of males, however, there is a continues decline in the work participation rate over the two decades. The fall during the decade 1981-91 is more conspicuous in the urban areas of Lucknow than in the rural areas.

These figures clearly indicate that employment opportunities for females are extremely limited as women are forced to compete for the limited employment opportunities with men in both rural and urban areas. Social values, customs and unemployment of males leave

little possibility for female employment and cause low FWPR - leaving a significant part of our human resources untapped. The situation is improving albeit slowly.

II.2 Growth of Workers

Table II.2 shows the distribution of main workers in Lucknow district by rural and urban areas and by sex in 1971, 1981 and 1991. It is to be observed that during the decade urban female work force has increased from 13,269 in 1971 to 17,829 in 1981 and further to 43,699 in 1991 in Lucknow. We find that women still constitute a very small proportion of urban work force - 6.1 per cent in 1981 and 9.6 per cent in 1991. In the year 1971 and 1981 the proportion of female workers to total workers was even lower in rural areas. However, in 1991 we observe that the proportion of female workers to total workers was higher in rural areas. The inclusion of unpaid workers on farm or family enterprises in the definition of 'worker' in 1991 Census can be the cause of this sudden increase during the decade 1981-91.

Further, from Table II.3 a significant fact emerges that the per cent growth of female workers was higher at 24.34 per cent compared to 21.83 per cent for male workers during the decade 1971-81 in Lucknow district. However, in U.P. per cent change in female workers was

Table II.2 : Distribution of Main Workers in Lucknow District in Rural and Urban Areas by Sex in 1971, 1981 and 1991

Areas	1971			1981			1991		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural	238255 (94.6)	13646 (5.4)	251901 (100.0)	277379 (94.7)	15638 (5.3)	293017 (100.0)	289656 (86.9)	43615 (13.1)	333271 (100.0)
Urban	215747 (94.2)	13269 (5.8)	229016 (100.0)	275751 (93.9)	17829 (6.1)	293580 (100.0)	411948 (90.4)	43699 (9.6)	455647 (100.0)
Total	454002 (94.4)	26915 (5.6)	480917 (100.0)	553130 (94.3)	33467 (5.7)	586597 (100.0)	701604 (88.9)	87314 (11.1)	788918 (100.0)

- Source :
- i) Census of India, 1971, Series 21, U.P., General Economic Table, Part II B(i).
 - ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B(i).
 - iii) Census of India, 1991, Series I, Provisional Population Totals, Workers and Their Distribution, Paper 3 of 1991.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

much lower (1.26 per cent) compared to male workers (20.47 per cent) over the same period. There is a marked difference in pattern of work force changes in rural and urban areas. In Lucknow district we find that in urban areas per cent increase of female workers was higher (34.37 per cent) over male workers (27.81 per cent) whereas, in rural areas reverse picture emerges with female workers per cent change being lower (14.60 per cent) as compared to male workers (16.42 per cent) during decade 1971-81.

Table II.3 : Growth of Main Workers in Lucknow District During the Decade 1971-81 and 1981-91

Areas	Actual Increase			Per cent Increase		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
<u>1971-81</u>						
Rural	39124	1992	41116	16.4	14.6	16.3
Urban	60004	4560	64564	27.8	34.4	28.2
Total	99128	6552	105680	21.8	24.3	22.0
<u>1981-91</u>						
Rural	12277	27977	40200	4.4	178.9	13.2
Urban	136197	25870	162067	49.4	145.1	55.2
Total	148474	53847	202321	26.8	160.9	34.5

- Source :
- i) Census of India, 1971, Series 21, U.P., General Economic Table, Part II B(i).
 - ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B(i).
 - iii) Census of India, 1991, Series I, Provisional Population Totals, Workers and Their Distribution, Paper 3 of 1991.

During the decade 1981-91, the number of male workers has increased by 26.84 per cent in all areas, 4.43 per cent in the rural areas and 49.40 per cent in the urban areas. The percentage increase in the number of female workers during this period is much higher - 160.9 per cent in all areas, 178.9 per cent in the rural areas and 145.1 per cent in the urban areas. Thus the rate of growth of female workers during the decade 1981-91 has been very sharp as compared to the previous decade as well as the growth rate of male workers.

II.3 Sectoral Changes in the Distribution of Workforce

The simplest explanation for rise in the employment of women as 'main' worker, though by no means a complete one, is that the movement generated by all the forces called 'urbanisation' has created a very large rise in employment opportunities, particularly in the fastest growing sector of all, that is, the tertiary sector. Sectoral trends in the distribution of workforce indicate the stage of development of the economy. They also reflect upon the new avenues of employment available to women, thus, indicating changes in their overall economic status. In this section we have taken the data of urban Lucknow for analysis as the universe of our sample is the same. Table II.4 reflects sector-wise distribution of workforce and its growth during the

Table II.4 : Distribution of Main Workers and Their Growth Rate by Industrial Classification in Lucknow Urban (1971 and 1981)

Divisions	1971			1981			Percentage Between 1971-81		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cultivators	4469	4264	205	6449	6335	164	44.31	48.57	-20.00
Agricultural Lab.	3181	2799	402	6759	6311	448	112.48	127.10	11.44
Livestock, forestry etc.	1509	133	72	2754	2679	75	82.50	86.43	4.17
Mining & Quarrying	134	133	1	118	118	-	-11.94	-11.28	-100.0
Primary Sector	9293	8613	680	16080	15433	687	73.03	79.30	1.03
Manufacturing, Processings and Servicing									
a) Household Industry	10272	9650	622	15393	14648	745	49.85	51.79	19.77
b) Other than Hou- sehold Industry	37042	36213	829	43831	42782	1049	18.33	18.14	26.54
Construction	3493	3448	45	5480	5432	48	56.89	57.54	6.67
Secondary Sector	50807	49311	1496	64704	62862	1842	27.35	27.48	23.13
Trade & Commerce	42943	41985	958	48491	46874	1617	12.92	11.64	68.79
Transport, Storage & Communication	31641	31174	467	36188	35518	670	14.37	13.93	43.47
Other Services	94332	84664	9668	128067	115054	13013	35.76	35.89	34.60
Tertiary Sector	168916	157823	11093	212746	197446	15300	25.95	25.11	37.92
Total Workers	229016	215747	13269	293530	275751	17829	28.17	27.81	34.37

Source : i) Census of India, 1971, Series 21, U.P., General Economic Table, Part II B(i).

ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B(i).

decade 1971-81. It shows that the growth rate of female workers is considerably higher (34.37 per cent) as compared to that of male workers (27.81 per cent). The growth of female workers is particularly noticed in the category of trade and commerce, transport, storage and communication and other than household industry.

Marginal growth is observed for female workers in primary sector i.e. only 1.03 per cent, and negative growth is observed in the categories of cultivators and mining and quarrying. It is agreed that women by reason of their weaker physical capacities and limited skills in heavy manual work, enter less in mining and quarrying and some areas of repair services where heavy work is involved. There is thus reduction in the growth rates of female workers in these categories. For U.P. negative growth is reflected from the data for female workers in primary sector i.e. 3.70 per cent. In contrast to this growth of male workers is substantial enough (79.30 per cent) in the primary sector in Lucknow urban.

Growth of female workers in secondary sector is slightly lower than the growth rate of male workers. Growth is higher for female workers only in other than household industry, rest of the categories show lower rate of growth as compared to male workers. This is also true for Uttar Pradesh and India where we find that non-household industry is the fastest growing segment in

the manufacturing industry and the growth of workers is also highest in this segment of urban areas over the period 1971-81. Growth of women in construction industry is much lower than the one recorded by men i.e. only 6.67 per cent compared to 57.54 per cent. In contrast to this we find that the growth of females in construction segment is 199.28 per cent in U.P. as a whole. This indicates that during the period 1971-81 urban Lucknow did not promote female participation in construction industry.

The situation of tertiary sector is much different from that of secondary sector. Here the growth of female workers is higher (37.92 per cent) than that of males (25.11 per cent). High growth of female workers is seen in the category of trade and commerce (68.79 per cent) followed by the second highest growth of 43.47 per cent for transport, storage and communication category and 34.60 per cent for other services category.

Further from Table II.5, a clearer picture comes forth of female workers participation when we look into their percent distribution in various sectors. Here too, we find that the highest proportion of females are clustered in the tertiary sector. In the primary sector only 5.12 per cent females were absorbed in Lucknow urban in the year 1971 and the figure further declined to 3.85 per cent in 1981. All the categories in the

Table II.5 : Per cent Distribution of Main Workers by Industrial Category in 1971 and 1981 in Lucknow Urban

Divisions	1971			1981			Per cent Change lage During the Decade 1971-81		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cultivators	1.95	1.98	1.54	2.20	2.30	0.92	0.25	0.32	- 0.62
Agricultural Lab.	1.39	1.30	3.03	2.30	2.29	2.51	0.91	0.99	- 0.52
Livestock, forestry etc.	0.66	0.67	0.54	0.94	0.97	0.42	0.28	0.30	- 0.12
Mining & Quarrying	0.06	0.06	*	0.04	0.04	0.00	- 0.02	- 0.02	N.A.
Primary Sector	4.06	4.01	5.12	5.48	5.60	3.85	1.42	1.59	- 1.27
Manufacturing, Processins and Servicing									
a) Household Industry	4.49	4.47	4.69	5.24	5.31	4.18	0.75	0.84	- 0.51
b) Other than Hou- sehold Industry	16.17	16.78	6.25	14.93	15.51	5.88	- 1.24	- 1.27	- 0.37
Construction	1.53	1.60	0.34	1.84	1.97	0.27	0.31	0.37	- 0.07
Secondary Sector	22.18	22.86	11.27	22.04	22.80	10.33	- 0.14	- 0.06	- 0.94
Trade & Commerce	18.75	19.46	7.22	16.52	17.00	9.07	- 2.23	- 2.46	1.84
Transport, Storage & Communication	13.82	14.45	3.52	12.33	12.88	3.76	- 1.49	- 1.57	0.24
Other Services	41.19	39.24	72.86	43.62	41.72	72.99	2.43	2.48	0.13
Tertiary Sector	73.76	73.15	83.60	72.47	71.60	85.82	- 1.29	- 1.55	2.22
Total Workers	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-	-	-

Source : i) Census of India, 1971, Series 21, U.P.,
General Economic Table, Part II B(i).

ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic
Tables, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B(i).

Note : * Negligible percentage.

primary sector showed a decline in the percentage of female workers over the period 1971-81. This seems to be due to introduction of advanced technology and also due to increasing pressure on land. Consequent landlessness and poverty force females to find new avenues of earning in other sectors thus leaving the primary sector behind.

The secondary sector too has registered a decline in percentage of female employment from 11.27 per cent in 1971 to 10.33 in 1981. This decline in the manufacturing sector can be attributed to be modernisation of technology used prohibiting female unskilled workers to continue in the workforce.

A clear shift is observed in the employment pattern in 1981 over 1971 in favour of tertiary sector. The largest chunk of female main workers are found in this sector. All the categories showed increase in the female workers. We observe that female workers have started venturing into the category of trade and commerce - once a male area of employment, as there has been an increase of 1.85 per cent point in the proportion of women workers. 'Other Services' category absorbs the largest proportion of females as workers both in 1971 (72.6 per cent) and 1981 (72.99 per cent). Spread of education, economic necessity to seek paid employment and development of service sector contributed to such a high proportion of female workers in the tertiary sector.

For comparative purposes the data for 1981 has been adjusted on the grounds of four categories as distinguished in 1991 Census. The most striking feature in the sectoral distribution of main workers in Lucknow urban during 1981-91 (Table II.6) is the marked increase in the proportion of cultivators and agricultural labourers both among males and females. It is explained that female workers positive growth in the primary sector is due to the effect of 1991 Census to net more women by including unpaid work on farm and enterprises in the definition of 'work'. Again this can be explained by the fact that the inclusion of rural areas in urban had brought about increase in number of workers in the categories of cultivators and agricultural labourers both for male and female workers. Besides this the increase in female work force can be attributed to male's absorption into skilled jobs thus, leaving behind field for females. This growth of workers in primary sector in 1991 shows that the adverse effects of new agricultural technology has subsidised due to increase in education regarding use of new agricultural technology. The proportion of the household industry workers also shows a sharp increase in the case of both males and females. This shows that government effort to increase self-employment amongst its people is successful. Adverse effects of industrialisation on household industry in the earlier decades have faded

Table II.6 : Distribution of Main Workers and Their Growth Rate in Lucknow Urban (1981 and 1991)

Divisions	1981			1991			Growth Rate During (1981-91)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cultivators	6449 (2.22)	6335 (2.30)	164 (0.92)	16755 (3.68)	15076 (3.66)	1679 (3.84)	159.81	137.98	923.78
Agricultural Labourers	6759 (2.30)	6311 (2.29)	448 (2.51)	16208 (3.55)	14317 (3.47)	1891 (4.33)	139.80	126.86	322.10
Household Industry	15393 (5.24)	14648 (5.31)	745 (4.18)	37627 (8.26)	33856 (8.22)	3771 (8.63)	144.44	131.13	406.17
Other Workers	264929 (90.24)	248557 (90.10)	16472 (92.39)	385057 (84.51)	348699 (84.65)	36358 (83.20)	45.34	40.30	120.73
Total Workers	293530 (100.0)	275751 (100.0)	17829 (100.0)	455647 (100.0)	395973 (100.0)	42294 (100.0)	55.23	49.39	145.10

Note : Figures for 1981 are adjusted to the four categories of 1991 to make comparison possible.

Source : i) Census of India, General Economic Tables, Part II A & B(i).

ii) Census of India, 1991, Series I, Provisional Population Total, Paper 3 of 1991.

away. The increase in the proportion of workers in the category of cultivators and agricultural labourers has brought about decline in the proportion of workers in the residuary category of other workers from 90.24 per cent in 1981 to 84.51 per cent in 1991. One striking feature for the decade 1981-91 is that the growth rate observed by female work force is much more than the male workers.

II.4 Changes in the Occupational Pattern

In order to understand the proper utilisation of women workforce it is necessary that we study the pattern of women employment according to their occupations. Table II.7 shows the distribution of main workers other than cultivators and agricultural labourer by sex and by occupational divisions in 1971 and 1981 in Lucknow urban. The table reveals that the growth of these non-agricultural workers over the period 1971-81 was higher for female workers (35.97 per cent) as compared to male workers (26.07 per cent). This finding establishes the fact that avenues of employment for females have increased in the non-agricultural sector during 1971-81. Further, we find that highest growth of female workers is observed in the category of workers not classified by occupation (2303.30 per cent) followed by clerical workers (175.41 per cent) and administrative, executive and managerial workers (132.50

Table II.7 : Distribution of Main Workers Other than Cultivators and Agricultural Labourers and Their Growth Rates by Occupational Classification in 1971 & 1981 (Lucknow) Urban)

Occupational Divisions	1971			1981			Per cent Change (1971-81)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Professional, Technical and Related	20005	15465	4540	27576	20992	6584	37.85	35.74	45.02
Administrative, Executive and Managerial	2576	2496	80	9346	9160	186	262.81	266.99	132.50
Clarial and Related	42650	41727	923	48629	46087	2542	14.02	10.45	175.41
Sales Workers	32583	31748	835	3774	36623	1111	15.81	15.36	33.05
Service Workers	28603	24928	3675	25486	22923	2563	-10.90	- 8.04	-30.26
Farmers, Fisherman, Hunter, Loggers etc.	2557	2455	102	2429	2370	59	-5.01	-3.46	-42.16
Production and Related Transport Equipment Operated and Labourers	85986	83570	2416	85425	83439	1986	-0.65	-0.16	-17.80
Workers Not Classified	6406	6315	91	43696	41509	2187	582.11	557.31	23303.30
Total Workers	221366	208704	12662	280320	263103	17217	26.63	26.07	35.97

Source : i) Census of India, 1971, General Economic Tables, Series 21, U.P., Part II B(iii) and (iv).

ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, Part III A & B (vii).

per cent). Females in the groups production and related worker, fishermen, hunters, farmers and service workers have declined in absolute numbers. Clerical cadre has registered higher growth of female workers as compared to male workers, i.e. we find that jobs with formal educational requirement shows increase in female employment, thus reflecting that education has changed females' area of employment.

Further probe into the occupational distribution (Table II.8) of female workers in Lucknow urban shows that though both in 1971 and 1981, the highest percentage of women workers was in the category of professional, technical and related workers (i.e. 35.86 per cent in 1971 and 38.24 per cent in 1981) but the change in per cent point was lower 2.38. The proportion of clerical and related workers to total women workers was 7.29 per cent in 1971 and 14.76 per cent in 1981 showing a significant jump. Service workers constituted a fair proportion of total women workers but declined over the period 1971-81 by as much as 14.13 per cent point. Highest increase in per cent points over 1971-81 has been for workers not classified by occupation (11.98) followed by clerical workers (7.47 per cent). All available data indicate that jobs as receptionists, clerks, stenographers and typists are absorbing more and more educated women (National Commission on Women, 1974, p.77). It is true that

Table II.8 : Per cent Distribution of Main Workers Other than Cultivators and Agricultural Labourers by Occupational Classification in 1971 and 1981 (Lucknow Urban)

Occupational Divisions	1971			1981			Change in Per cent Point (1971-81)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Occupational Divisions	9.04	7.41	35.86	9.84	7.98	38.24	0.80	0.57	2.38
Professional, Technical and Related	1.16	1.20	0.63	3.33	3.48	1.08	2.17	2.28	0.45
Administrative, Executive and Managerial	19.27	20.00	7.29	17.35	17.52	14.76	-1.92	-2.48	7.47
Clarial and Related	14.72	15.21	6.59	13.46	13.92	6.45	-1.26	-1.29	-0.14
Sales Workers	12.92	11.94	29.02	9.09	8.71	14.89	-3.83	-3.23	-14.13
Service Workers	1.16	1.18	0.81	0.87	0.90	0.34	-0.29	-0.28	-0.47
Farmers, Fisherman Hunter, Loggers etc	38.84	40.04	19.08	30.47	31.71	11.54	-8.37	-8.33	-7.54
Production and Related, Transport, Equipment Operation	2.89	3.03	0.72	15.59	15.78	12.70	12.70	12.75	11.98
Total Workers	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	-	-	-

Source : i) Census of India, 1971, General Economic Tables, Series 21, U.P., Part II B(iii) and (iv).

ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, Part III A & B (vii).

increase in the number of women of this level has been much faster than at any other level of public services.

Segregation in the urban labour market of Lucknow is reflected from the fact that there is a heavy concentration of women workers in professional, clerical and sales category. That the present pattern of industrial growth is not favouring female workers is reflected from the fact that the proportion of production and related workers has declined. Growth of workers not classified by occupation shows that informal activities are attracting women from poor sections into its web. Thus, it is clear from the above analysis that distinct shifts in occupational pattern away from services sector and in favour of non-agricultural activities is taking place.

Since data for 1991 on occupational category is not furnished in the recent Census thus restricted our analysis to 1981 Census.

II.5 Distribution Pattern of Clerical and Related Workers

As observed above women clerical and related workers showed highest change in per cent point (7.47) over the decade 1971-81 in Lucknow urban. As our study is related to on this category of workers, it becomes imperative to analyse the pattern and direction of change within this category. Growth rate of female

Table II.9 : Per cent Distribution Clerical and Related Workers by Occupational Groups in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981 by Sex

Occupational Divisions	1971			1981			Change in Per cent Point (1971-81)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Clerical and Supervisor (30)	8.80	6.50	8.75	11.40	8.02	11.23	2.60	1.52	2.48
Village Officials (31)	0.32	-	0.32	0.48	0.20	0.47	0.16	0.20	0.15
Stenographers, Typist, Card & Tape Punching Operators (32)	5.94	30.98	6.48	4.49	16.25	5.10	-1.45	-14.73	-1.38
Book-Keepers, Cashiers & Related (33)	6.78	4.33	6.73	6.90	8.65	7.00	0.12	4.32	0.27
Computing Machine Operators (34)	0.49	-	0.49	0.45	0.20	0.43	-0.04	0.20	-0.06
Clerical and Related (35)	70.46	42.14	69.84	69.38	60.31	68.90	-1.08	18.17	-0.94
Transport & Communication Supervisor (36)	2.40	0.54	2.36	1.60	-	1.51	-0.80	-0.54	-0.85
Transport Conductor and Guards (37)	1.57	-	1.54	2.18	0.20	2.08	0.61	0.20	0.54
Mail Distributors (38)	2.00	-	1.95	1.51	0.20	1.44	-0.49	0.20	-0.54
Telephone & Telegraph Operators (39)	1.21	15.50	1.52	1.60	5.90	1.83	0.39	-9.60	0.31
Total Workers	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	-	-	-

Source : i) Census of India, 1971, General Economic Tables, Series 21, Part II-B(iii).

ii) Census of India, 1981, General Economic Tables, Series 22, Part III A & B(vii).

workers is significantly higher and is in positive direction as compared to a decline of 2.48 per cent in the same period in male workers.

Per cent distribution of workers in various occupational groups of clerical and related workers category is given in Table II.9. The largest proportion of total female workers is found in the category of clerical and related workers both in 1971 (42.14 per cent) and 1981 (30.31 per cent). In 1981 we observe a change of 11.83 per cent point in this category which shows that during the decade more and more females are being attracted to this category of clerical work with increase in education in the city. The second largest chunk of the female labour force is in stenographer, typist and card and tape punching operators - 30.98 per cent in 1971 and 16.25 per cent in 1981. This category shows a decline of 14.73 per cent points thus indicating that women have started drifting to other fields of clerical job instead of concentrating in the stereotype category.

Data regarding the clerical occupation is not available and hence our study is limited to the Census of 1981 only.

II.6 Conclusion

The analysis of growth and occupational pattern of female workers in Lucknow urban shows that female work

force participation rate (FWPR) is very low in Lucknow urban as well as in U.P. as compared to the male workers' participation rate. In 1981 as well as 1991, we observe that there is a general decline in the WFPR of total workers but, female WFPR in Lucknow urban and rural has increased significantly. The rural-urban difference in 1981 in female WFPR shows that rate of female participation in economic activity was higher in urban areas due to the impact of education and urbanisation, whereas due to the use of modern technology in agriculture female participation rate is adversely affected in rural areas but the 1991 Census shows that due to increase in education in new aricultural technology adverse effects have faded away. The growth rate of female workers was higher in urban areas as compared to male workers during the decade 1971-81 and 1981-91.

We observe that the urban workforce in Lucknow is generally concentrated in tertiary sector. There is definite transition in pattern of distribution of female workforce away from the primary sector and in favour of tertiary sector. Due to the adverse effect of new agricultural technology we find that the chances of women being absorbed in the primary sector are reduced. Significantly enough, we note that due to the restructuring of manufacturing industry through induction of modern technology retrenchment of women

workers is taking place as they lack industrial training and required skill - hence we find a decline in the proportion of female workers even in this sector. But when 1991 data is considered we find that the picture is reversed. Again, female worker's positive growth is observed in the primary sector and this can be attributed to the effect of 1991 Census to net more women by including unpaid work on farm and family enterprises in the definition of 'work'. Thus, we find that the existing labour market is segregated as the tertiary sector accounts for the highest proportion of women workers. It also accounts for the fastest growing sector in terms of offering new avenues of employment for women of the city.

The picture of segregated labour market becomes more clear when we look into the occupational distribution of workers in the city. We find a clear concentration of females in professional, clerical and sales cadres. Growth of informal sector is indicated by growth of female workers in the category of workers not classified. In all these categories growth of female workers is higher than that of male workers.

Within clerical and related workers division there is a clear segregation of the labour market due to gender as females are seen concentrated in the clerical and related category and as stenographers, typists etc.

Also women are seen entering into new occupations in the 'male field' as mail distributors and computing machine operators, transport conductors and guards, though in small numbers.' To conclude, there is a clear segregation of labour market in the city at the sector, occupational and intra-occupation levels. However, with economic development and spread of education change in the attitude and belief regarding women as workers has emerged thus enabling them to enter into male dominated professions.

CHAPTER III

Socio-Economic Background of Female Secretarial Workers

III.0 Introduction

The critical role played by socio-cultural background of any individual in the formation of his or her orientation is well recognised. According to Ruth Benedict, most people are shaped to the form of their culture because of the malleability of their original endowment. They are elastic to the moulding force of the society into which they are born (Benedict, 1934). Erich Fromm points out, "man's nature, his passion and anxieties are a cultural product (Fromm, 1947). Socio-cultural restrictions on women limit not only their supply in the workforce, but also the demand for women for work (Anker and Hein, 1986). The impact of parents, childhood days, family setting and school are some of the major factors which are taken into account by social analysts to reflect the social heterogeneity and understanding the orientations of individuals and groups in a society.

The socio-cultural variables are of particular importance for the Indian women as these beliefs act as a catalyst in forming their attitudes and values--thereby determining the level of modernity achieved by an individual in our society. The social framework in our

country has undergone a significant change in last few decades and as a consequence there has been an encouraging increase in the number of women in the work-force. Religion, caste, educational and parental background can act both as a stimulant towards a changed role perception of the women and also prove to be an impediment in their path. Various studies have pointed out the importance of these parameters in influencing the employment structure (Ahmad, 1979; Reddy, 1986; Sharan, 1987; Jain, 1988; Kraisonswasdi, 1989; Rathaur, 1990).

In the present chapter the personal and social profile of the women secretarial workers has been presented with the help of information regarding their religion, caste, educational background and professional training. The presentation in this chapter is divided into five sections. In the first section we deal with the social characteristics of respondents such as religion, caste and educational status. Section two discusses the employment and occupational status of the respondents and the household members. Section three analyses demographic parameters such as age, marital status, children, size and structure of the family, etc. Parental background is discussed in section four, covering all the related variables. The last section gives the summary and conclusion.

III.1 Social Characteristics

III.1.1 Religion : Religion is an institution which instils a particular ideological base and philosophy of life in an individual. An individual's outlook towards oneself, one's society, one's faith and one's social and economic aspirations are coloured by one's religious faith. The religious distribution of our sample indicates that 75.2 per cent of the respondents belonged to the Hindu community, 9.0 per cent were Sikh, 7.5 per cent were Muslims, 6.0 per cent were Christian and 0.7 per cent were Jain (Table III.1). The percentage of Hindus in the sample is higher than the proportion of

Table III.1 : Distribution of Respondents by Religion
(Nos.)

Religion	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Empl- oyees
Hindu	39 (84.8)	36 (72.0)	27 (73.0)	102 (75.2)
Muslim	3 (6.5)	6 (12.0)	1 (2.7)	10 (7.5)
Sikh	2 (4.3)	4 (8.0)	6 (16.0)	12 (9.0)
Christian	2 (4.3)	3 (6.0)	3 (8.1)	8 (6.0)
Jain	-	1 (2.0)	-	1 (0.7)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

Hindus in the total population of Lucknow urban. The reason for high representation of Hindus can be attributed to their capacity to adjust to changing conditions (Pandeya, 1970).

Our study reveals a very interesting picture in the case of Muslim community. Though they are 27.9 per cent of the population of Lucknow city (1981 Census) but, we find in our sample that only 7.5 per cent are Muslim. The reason behind this can be stated to be seclusion of women in Islam (National Commission on Women, 1974, p.44). Muslim culture we find that Muslim women hesitate to take up jobs due to religious restrictions. Our sample shows that those Muslim females who are in jobs are basically in Government sector. It seems that their family, their culture considers public sector to be the 'secure sector'.

Christians stand first in the modernity of outlook due to the impact of missionaries. It is an accepted fact that Christians assign high value to girls education (National Commission on Women, 1974). In our sample too, Christians have a fair representation both in the public as well as private sector (i.e., 5.7 per cent and 8.1 per cent respectively). Sikhs being more outgoing types contribute second highest representation of 16.0 per cent in private sector and 9.0 per cent of total sample.

III.1.2 Caste : Caste system is the basis of social stratification of Hindu society. It is also related to the economic and cultural context. Indian experience shows that higher castes have a tradition of education. Mehrotra's (1980) study shows that boys of higher caste had started entering centres of higher learning and today high caste females have also advanced still further. In spite of special privileges given in education and employment to the lower castes (SC & ST) their representation in our sample is conspicuous by its

Table III.2 : Distribution of Hindu Respondents by Caste (Nos.)

Caste	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Brahmin	16 (41.0)	12 (33.3)	9 (33.3)	37 (36.3)
Kshatriya	4 (10.3)	2 (5.6)	4 (14.8)	10 (9.8)
Vaishya	5 (12.8)	3 (8.3)	1 (3.7)	9 (8.8)
Kayastha	13 (33.3)	14 (38.9)	7 (25.9)	34 (33.3)
Khatri	1 (2.6)	5 (13.9)	6 (22.2)	12 (11.8)
Total	39 (100.0)	36 (100.0)	27 (100.0)	102 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

absence. Due to cumulative neglect over the decades SC & ST females have lagged behind in obtaining a job for themselves even in clerical jobs pointing to the fact that reservation policy has failed at least for females.

Our study reveals that more than a half of the respondents belonged to the higher castes. Amongst these 36.3 per cent were Brahmins, 9.8 per cent were Kshatriya and 8.8 per cent were Vaishya. The intermediate castes such as Khatri and Kayastha were 33.3 per cent and 11.8 per cent respectively.

III.1.3 Educational Status : Education is the means through which a society perpetuates and spreads its own culture. From the point of view of the individual education is the process of "bringing out" or "developing" an individual's natural abilities and interests. It is thus a basic right of every human being (Verghese, Chadwick & Charnes, 1982). Economic development, welfare and security of a nation are closely dependent on the extent and quality of education. Knowledge and survival now go together (Kothari, 1970).

In both the developed and developing countries the education system helps to reinforce the patriarchal values and attitudes existing in society. This is best illustrated by figures which show that in 1901 the percentage of literacy amongst women was only 0.8 per

cent. It rose to 13 per cent in 1964 and 18 per cent in 1971 to 24.8 per cent in 1981.

The cultural image of a woman, the position occupied by her in society and the role assigned to her are determined basically by her education. The importance of education for females is stressed by very many studies (Srivastava, 1978; Lalitha Devi, 1982; Jain, 1986; Blumberg and Dwaraki, 1980). Lamb (1966) justifies women's right to education on the basis of their role as mothers. Kapadia (1966) derives a more optimistic picture by indicating that men are now seeking wives who are on par with them educationally.

The educational level of the respondent's household members is fairly high (Table III.3). Graduates and over comprise above 60 per cent of the total sample. It can be concluded that secretarial workers come from families that are fairly well educated. An interesting fact observed is that 2.1 per cent of the members were illiterate. Of the 12 cases of illiterates 5 were mother-in-laws of the respondent, one was father-in-law and 4 were sister-in-laws. In one case all the five females of a muslim family were illiterate except the respondent. All the 8 illiterate members were above the age of 59 years. Only two respondents from younger unmarried group mentioned that their mothers were not literate and belonged to rural areas.

Table III.3 : Distribution of Household Members above Five Years of Age by Educational Level

(Nos.)

Educational Status	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Illiterate	5 (2.6)	7 (3.1)	—	12 (2.1)
Primary	20 (10.3)	14 (6.2)	6 (4.3)	40 (7.1)
Secondary	10 (5.1)	14 (6.2)	8 (5.7)	32 (5.7)
High School	18 (9.3)	21 (9.3)	9 (6.4)	48 (8.6)
Intermediate	32 (16.5)	39 (17.3)	17 (12.1)	88 (15.7)
Graduation	62 (31.9)	84 (37.3)	73 (52.1)	219 (39.2)
Post-Graduation	41 (21.1)	44 (19.5)	26 (18.6)	111 (19.8)
Doctorate	6 (3.1)	2 (0.9)	1 (0.7)	9 (1.6)
Total	194 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	559 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

The distribution of respondents by academic qualification highlights the fact that the respondents belong to fairly educated category of the population.

Table III.4 shows that 55.6 per cent of the respondents are graduates and 32.3 per cent are post-graduates, around 55 per cent women secretarial workers in the government and semi-government organisation had a graduation degree and 32.3 per cent had post graduation qualification, whereas, 72.9 per cent of women secretarial workers working in private organisation had graduation and only 21.6 per cent had post-graduation qualification. This difference can be attributed to the fact that entry into the government and semi-government establishment is associated with individual's

Table III.4 : Distribution of Respondents by Academic Qualifications

(Nos.)

Qualifi- cations	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
High School	1 (2.2)	2 (4.0)	1 (2.7)	4 (3.0)
Intermediate	5 (10.8)	6 (12.0)	1 (2.7)	12 (9.0)
Graduates	22 (47.8)	25 (50.0)	27 (72.9)	74 (55.6)
Post- Graduates	18 (39.1)	17 (34.0)	8 (21.6)	43 (32.3)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total.

qualification. This is however, not true in the case of the private sector, where graduation with any vocational training serves the purpose. Respondents with only High School and Intermediate degree form only 10-12 per cent of the sample in public sector and these respondents are basically in the workforce and availing the privilege of securing job after the death of their husbands.

Table III.5 shows the distribution of respondents by choice of field of study. Female are still segregated in the science subjects, both in school and

Table III.5 : Distribution of Respondents by Field of Study

Category	Nos.)			Total
	Arts Group	Science Group	Commerce Group	
High School	3 (75.0)	1 (25.0)	-	4 (100.0)
Intermediate	11 (91.6)	1 (8.3)	-	12 (100.0)
Graduates	63 (85.1)	8 (10.8)	3 (4.0)	74 (100.0)
Post-Graduates	39 (90.7)	4 (9.3)	-	43 (100.0)
Total	116 (87.2)	14 (10.5)	3 (2.3)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentage to total figures in that category.

university. In the present study, 87.2 per cent of respondents opted for arts subjects and only 10.5 per cent were in science group and 2.3 per cent in commerce group. Similar, is the case in western countries. Girls tend to pick shorter 'lines' than boys, and there is a marked difference in the choice of subjects (Scriven, 1984). Most boys choose scientific, engineering, 'technical' lines whilst girls opt for the traditional 'female' lines such as nursing, clerical work and teaching. In a study of Great Britain it is stated that "while job segregation manifests itself, of course, in the employment situation, it often has its roots in the educational system females are still segregated in the arts, and males in the science subjects, both at school and university" (Lockwood and Knowles, 1984, p.10).

Almost 50 per cent of the respondents reported having professional, vocational and on-the-job training (Table III.6). One Striking feature is that 78.4 per cent of the respondents in private sector had undergone training. Distribution of respondents by details of vocational and on-the-job training is given in Table III.7. In case of Central government 30.4 per cent of respondents had taken vocational training and only 6.5 per cent had taken on-the-job training. In case of private sector 54.0 per cent of respondents had undergone vocational training and 8.1 per cent on-the-

Table III.6 : Distribution of Respondents having Professional, Vocational and on the Job Training

(Nos.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Respondents having training	22 (47.8)	15 (30.0)	29 (78.4)	66 (49.6)
Respondents not having training	24 (52.2)	35 (70.0)	8 (21.6)	67 (50.4)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentage to total figures in that category.

job training facilities, highlighting the fact that training is more valued in the private sector. The table also shows that the proportion of respondents with training in stenography and secretarial practice is 16.5 per cent and, while per cent have training in typing.

Table III.8 shows the distribution of respondents whose education was interrupted. 50.4 per cent respondents claimed that their education was interrupted. 15.0 per cent of the respondents gave marriage as the reason for leaving education and 17.3 per cent said that the economic necessity forced them

Table III.7 : Distribution of respondents by Details of Vocational and On-the-Job Training

(Nos.)

Types of Training	Vocational Training				On-the-Job Training			
	Central	State	Private	Total	Central	State	Private	Total
Steno	4 (8.6)	3 (6.0)	4 (10.8)	11 (8.3)				
Typist	3 (6.5)	2 (4.0)	5 (13.5)	10 (7.5)	1 (2.0)			1 (0.7)
Data punching	2 (4.3)		1 (2.7)	3 (2.2)	1 (2.0)			1 (0.7)
Secretarial Practice	2 (4.3)	1 (2.0)	8 (21.6)	11 (8.3)				
Telex/ Teleprinter	1 (2.1)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.7)	3 (2.2)			1 (2.7)	1 (0.7)
PABX/PNT/Telephone Operator	2 (4.3)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.7)	4 (3.0)	1 (2.1)		2 (5.4)	3 (2.2)
Departmental Training	-	-	-	-	2 (4.3)	1 (2.0)		3 (2.2)
Total with Training	14 (30.4)	8 (16.0)	20 (54.1)	42 (31.6)	3 (6.5)	3 (6.0)	3 (8.1)	9 (6.7)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

Table III.8 : Distribution of Respondents Whose Education was Interrupted

(Nos.)

Type of Employment	Respondents whose education was interrupted	Respondents whose education was not interrupted	Total respondents
Central Government Employees	21 (45.6)	25 (54.3)	46 (100.0)
State Government Employees	30 (60.0)	20 (40.0)	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	16 (43.2)	21 (56.7)	31 (100.0)
Total	67 (50.3)	66 (49.6)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

to take up a job and leave education (Table III.9). 9.0 per cent of respondents said that their parents were against higher education for girls and 8.3 per cent responded by claiming ill-health and that their parents couldn't afford further education for them as the reason for leaving education. Only 3.0 per cent of respondents left education on their own.

Table III.9 : Distribution of Respondents Whose Education was Interrupted due to Various Reasons

(Nos.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Parents against higher education for girls	2 (4.3)	5 (10.0)	5 (13.5)	12 (9.0)
Parents couldn't afford	4 (8.6)	5 (10.0)	2 (5.4)	11 (8.3)
Economic necessity forced to take up job	6 (13.0)	13 (26.0)	4 (10.8)	23 (17.3)
Ill-health	4 (8.6)	1 (2.0)	6 (16.2)	11 (8.3)
Marriage	6 (13.0)	10 (20.0)	4 (10.8)	20 (15.0)
Change of city	1 (2.1)	1 (2.0)	0	2 (1.5)
Did not want to study further	2 (4.3)	0	2 (5.4)	4 (3.0)
Total	25 (54.3)	35 (70.0)	23 (62.2)	83 (62.4)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

Traditionally women's roles have been confined within the household boundaries. But recent changes in society have gradually loosened this impediment. Now girls are not restricted to household chores but various other fields have been opened to them. To know the attitude of parents towards their male and female child's education, the respondents were asked to inform whether their parents treated differently their male and female children. Out of total respondents only 9.0 per cent claimed differential treatment of parents towards them and in favour of their brothers (Table III.10). The respondents reported various reasons for this inequality in education. 8.3 per cent responded that being a girl they were destined to share domestic chores, 5.3 per cent said that their brothers were more encouraged to study and about 6.0 per cent claimed that better schools being not in vicinity they were sent to ordinary schools and their brothers were sent to better schools at a distance. One striking feature is that all the respondents claiming differential treatment of their parents were from the older age group i.e. above 40. The fact that comes forward is that none of the younger respondents showed such male biased attitude of their parents thus highlighting that traditional norms towards women have changed over time.

Table III.10 : Distribution of Respondents Claiming Differential Treatment from Parents in Terms of Education

(Nos.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Respondents giving posi- tive respon- ses	2 (4.3)	2 (4.0)	8 (21.6)	12 (9.0)
Male child was given better education	1 (2.2)	2 (4.0)	3 (8.1)	6 (4.5)
Male child was sent to better school at a distance	0	1 (2.0)	2 (5.4)	3 (2.2)
Male child was encouraged to study	0	2 (4.0)	5 (13.5)	7 (5.3)
Male child was given higher education	1 (2.2)	1 (2.0)	3 (8.1)	5 (3.8)
Being a girl had to share in domestic chores	2 (4.3)	2 (4.0)	7 (18.9)	11 (8.3)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

III.2 Employment and Occupational Status

III.2.1 Employment Status : A considerable proportion i.e., 52.7 per cent of the members of the respondents' households are employed (Table III.11). The percentage of students is 20.7. The number of housewives is only

Table III.11 : Distribution of Household Members According to Employment Status

(Nos.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Children	19 (8.9)	13 (5.5)	3 (2.1)	35 (5.9)
Student	47 (22.1)	56 (23.5)	20 (14.0)	123 (20.7)
Housewives	26 (12.2)	37 (15.6)	26 (18.2)	89 (15.0)
Employed	107 (50.2)	122 (51.3)	84 (58.7)	313 (52.7)
Unemployed	3 (1.4)	-	1 (0.7)	4 (0.7)
Retired/ disabled	11 (5.2)	10 (4.2)	9 (6.3)	30 (5.1)
Total	213 (100.0)	238 (100.0)	143 (100.0)	594 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

15.7 per cent (Table III.12). The number of retired/disabled persons is 5.1 per cent. The number of unemployed members is almost negligible - merely 0.7 per cent of the total members. Approximately similar pattern is observed in the Central government, State government and private establishments as regards employment status of household members.

III.2.2 Occupational Status : Out of total 343 economically active members of the present household, 66.1 per cent are in government service (Table III.12, showing a close affinity between the career selected by respondents and that of household members. Central government and State government respondents have a considerable proportion of household members in government service. Similar is the case with private sector respondents i.e. 50.0 per cent household members are in private service. A very low proportion of showing a close affinity between the career selected by respondents and that of household members. Central government and State government respondents have a considerable proportion of household members in government service. Similar is the case with private sector respondents i.e. 50.0 per cent household members are in private service. A very low proportion of household members is in business, teaching and self-employed category.

Table III.12 : Distribution of Household Members
According to Occupation (Nos.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Government Service	89 (83.2)	96 (78.7)	22 (26.2)	207 (66.1)
Private Service	2 (1.9)	6 (4.9)	42 (50.0)	50 (16.0)
Business	4 (3.7)	9 (7.4)	7 (8.3)	20 (6.4)
Self- Employed	7 (6.5)	5 (4.1)	5 (5.9)	17 (5.4)
Teachers	2 (1.9)	6 (4.9)	4 (4.8)	12 (3.8)
Bank Employees	2 (1.9)	0	4 (4.8)	6 (1.9)
Agriculture	1 (0.9)	0	0	1 (0.3)
Total	107 (100.0)	122 (100.0)	84 (100.0)	313 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

A similar consistency between occupations is seen in the case of spouses in our study (Table III.13. A study by Srivastava (1978, p.58) also shows that besides consistency in professions of spouses, working wives do have the same educational level as their husbands. Parson study (1949, pp.190-193) also corroborates our

Table III.13 : Distribution of Husbands of Respondents According to Occupation

(Nos.)

Occupation	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Government Service	23 (82.1)	12 (75.0)	6 (42.9)	41 (70.7)
Private Service	-	-	4 (28.6)	4 (6.9)
Business	-	1 (6.3)	4 (28.6)	5 (8.6)
Self- Employed	2 (7.1)	2 (12.5)	-	4 (6.9)
Teachers	1 (3.6)	-	-	1 (1.7)
Banks	2 (7.1)	-	-	2 (3.5)
Retired	-	1 (6.3)	-	1 (1.7)
Any other	-	-	-	-
Total	28 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	58 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

study by stating that the women are likely to work in occupations which are consistent in prestige with that of their husbands. Marital stability gets threatened by "occupationally deprived prestige rivalry" 'consistency issue' between spouses. Thus, married women would be

Table III.14 : Distribution of Respondents having Close Female Employed Relatives by Occupational Status

(Nos.)				
Occupation	Central Govern-ment Employees	State Govern-ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Respondents giving posi- tive respon- ses	20 (43.5)	28 (56.0)	20 (54.0)	68 (51.1)
Total Respon- dents	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)
<u>Number of Female Relatives in</u>				
Government Service	17 (53.1)	24 (63.2)	12 (50.0)	53 (54.6)
Private Service	0	1 (2.6)	1 (4.2)	2 (2.1)
Business	0	0	0	0
Self- Employed	2 (6.3)	1 (2.6)	4 (16.6)	7 (7.2)
Teachers	13 (40.6)	12 (31.6)	6 (25.0)	31 (31.9)
Bank	0	0	4 (16.6)	4 (4.1)
Total	32 (100.0)	38 (100.0)	24 (100.0)	97 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

mostly working in jobs which have similar or slightly lower prestige than that of their husbands. Table III.14 shows that 82.1 per cent of husbands of Central government respondents and 75.0 per cent husbands of State government respondents are in government service, which is in consonance with the fact that respondents are also from government service. In case of private sector respondents 57.0 per cent husbands are in private service and private business. A very low proportion of husbands of respondents are in teaching and banks.

Table 3.14 shows that above 50 per cent of the close female relatives of respondents are employed. Respondents have reported of emulating their female relatives to some extent.

III.3 Demographic Characteristics

The comprehensive picture of the status of women workers can come forth when details of demographic variables are studied. Demographic parameters like age, marital status, number of children, size of household etc. play a crucial role in determining the female participation in the workforce. Many scholars have off and on stressed the importance of demographic characteristics in bringing out the status of women workers (Ranade and Ramachandran, 1970; Singh 1981; Rammana, 1987; Jain, 1988).

III.3.1 Age : Age is one of the important variables in understanding the woman's status in society. Status generally correlates with the age of the individual as the role of women and their responsibilities vary significantly in different periods of their life. Moreover, age signifies experience. It is symbolic of the social exposure to which a person has undergone. The attitude, mental-set and the behavioural pattern varies with the variation in age.

Table III.15 shows the distribution of respondents by age groups. The data reveals that 48.1 per cent of the respondents came from the age-group of 25-35 years. This implies that the phenomenon of women entering the secretarial cadres is relatively recent. In Bangalore study Rosen (1966) found "this lower middle class group generally has a high rate of literacy and education and an inclination toward white collar jobs..." Our sample reveals a unimodel age pattern in contrast to bimodal age pattern of western countries because women leave the workforce for child bearing and rearing and then re-enter at a later stage. In Britain the highest employment rate is between 16 and 22 years thereafter it gradually declines upto the age of 32 from where it increases again and the second highest rate is between 42 and 46 years (Klein, 1956). An exactly similar pattern is also observed in U.S.A. (Bancroft, 1958).

Table III.15 : Distribution of Respondents by Age-Group

(Nos.)

Age-Group	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Below 25	7 (15.2)	8 (16.0)	14 (37.8)	29 (21.8)
25 - 35	27 (58.7)	22 (44.0)	15 (40.5)	64 (48.1)
35 - 45	8 (17.4)	13 (26.0)	8 (21.6)	29 (21.8)
45 & Above	4 (8.7)	7 (14.0)	0	11 (8.3)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)
Average Age	31.9	33.3	27.8	31.3

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

Margaret S. Gordon summarises the typical labour force participation pattern of women in western countries as follows "...she will marry in her early twenties, work until shortly before the birth of her first child, drop out of the labour force for a number of years thereafter, and return to the job market sometimes after her youngest child has entered school. After that, although her labour force participation may not be continuous the chances are that she will work

most of the time until she is between 60 and 65 years of age" (Gordon, 1968). During our survey, it was observed that women did not leave their job for child bearing and rearing signifying the fact that getting employment is not an easy task in India.

Table III.15 highlights the fact that the proportion of females in 45 and above age group is only 8.27 per cent of the total respondents. In all the categories i.e. Central government, State government and private sector the 25-35 age group commands the largest percentage (58.7, 44.0 and 40.54 per cent respectively). Female entry in the private sector is a very recent phenomenon as 37.84 per cent of females are in below 25 age group, 40.54 per cent in 25-35 age group and only 21.62 per cent in the age group 35-45, whereas females in the age group 45 and above are absent all together as compared to small representation of this group in Central and State government.

Table III.16 shows the distribution of household members according to age-groups. It is observed that 74.7 per cent of the household members are in the age group of 15-59 years, leading to the conclusion that these secretarial workers belong to the households where majority of the members are from economically active age groups.

Table III.16' : Distribution of Household Members
According to Age Groups

(Nos.)

Age-Group	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
0 - 15	48 (22.5)	33 (13.9)	14 (9.8)	95 (12.9)
15 - 59	145 (68.1)	185 (77.7)	114 (79.7)	444 (74.7)
59 & Above	20 (9.4)	22 (9.2)	15 (10.5)	57 (3.2)
Total	213 (100.0)	238 (100.0)	143 (100.0)	594 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to figures in that category.

Studies in the Western countries emphasise the fact that married women are more likely to enter the workforce though there are exceptions like Ireland (Murdoch, 1984).

The present study (Table III.17) shows that out of the total 133 respondents 43.6 per cent are married, 42.8 per cent are unmarried, 12.7 per cent are widowed and only 0.75 per cent are divorced revealing the fact that divorce is still not much prevalent in our society. That the Indian women has now become much emancipated is

Table III.17 : Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

(Nos.)

Marital Status	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Married	28 (60.9)	16 (32.0)	14 (37.8)	58 (43.6)
Unmarried	13 (28.3)	22 (44.0)	22 (59.5)	57 (42.9)
Widow	5 (10.9)	11 (22.0)	1 (2.7)	17 (12.9)
Divorced	-	1 (2.0)	-	1 (0.8)
Separated	-	-	-	-
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figures in that category.

highlighted by the fact that a good number of unmarried women of the age group below 25 have joined the private sector which was once the arena of only male employment (Table III.18).

Table III.18 : Distribution of Respondents by Age and Marital Status

(Nos.)

Age-Group	Married				Unmarried			
	Central Govt. Emplo- yees	State Govt. Emplo- yees	Private (Act) Estab- lishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees	Central Govt. Emplo- yees	State Govt. Emplo- yees	Private (Act) Estab- lishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Below 20	-	-	-	-	1 (7.7)	-	2 (9.1)	3 (5.3)
20 - 25	-	2 (7.1)	3 (20.0)	5 (6.6)	7 (53.8)	7 (31.8)	12 (54.5)	26 (45.6)
25 - 30	11 (33.3)	3 (10.7)	1 (6.7)	15 (19.7)	4 (30.8)	9 (40.9)	7 (31.8)	20 (35.1)
30 - 35	13 (39.4)	11 (39.3)	7 (46.7)	31 (40.8)	1 (7.7)	3 (13.6)	1 (4.5)	5 (8.8)
35 - 40	4 (12.1)	3 (10.7)	3 (20.0)	10 (13.2)	-	3 (13.6)	-	3 (5.3)
40 - 45	1 (3.0)	4 (14.3)	1 (6.7)	6 (7.9)	-	-	-	-
45 - 50	3 (9.1)	5 (17.8)	-	8 (10.5)	-	-	-	-
50 & Above	1 (3.0)	-	-	1 (1.3)	-	-	-	-
Total	33 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	76 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	22 (100.0)	22 (100.0)	57 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

A detailed analysis of mean age at marriage for males and females in U.P. shows that it is very low but has increased from 12.27 years in 1901 to 16.68 years in 1981 (Srivastava, 1987). Compared to this figure our sample shows that the age at marriage is higher i.e. 22.38 years which is in conformity with Srivastava's (1978, p.75) finding of 22.97 years. Education is another factor which is bringing about the required change in the society. A significant proportion of respondents in the present sample got married while in the age group of 18-27 (Table III.19). Only one respondent was married before the age of 15 years. The difficulty of securing jobs by persons of low educational qualification has driven more and more persons to seek higher education and higher education has invariably meant comparatively late marriage.

Since young men now-a-days prefer educated girls as wives - education of girls has become a necessity, resulting in the postponement of marriage. Further, resistance of young men to get entangled in matrimony till they are settled in this competitive world has also operated in favour of females. Kapadia (1966 p.165) suggests the proper age for marriage to be one which enables a young woman to first complete college.

Table III.19 : Distribution of Respondents by Age at marriage

Category	Age Groups							Total	Mean Age at Marriage
	Below 15	15-18	18-21	21-24	24-27	27-30	Above 30		
Central Government Employees	1 (3.0)	1 (3.0)	8 (24.2)	14 (42.4)	4 (12.1)	5 (15.2)	0	33 (100.0)	23.2
State Government Employees	0	4 (14.3)	8 (28.6)	5 (17.7)	6 (21.4)	3 (10.7)	2 (7.1)	28 (100.0)	21.89
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	0	2 (13.3)	9 (60.0)	3 (20.0)	0	1 (6.7)	0	15 (100.0)	21.53
Total Employees	1 (1.3)	7 (9.2)	25 (32.9)	22 (29.0)	10 (13.2)	9 (11.8)	2 (2.6)	76 (100.0)	22.38

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

III.3.3 Children : A number of empirical studies have demonstrated that the fertility is inversely related to the social class position, though in recent years these differences are gradually narrowing down. Change in fertility behaviour may be due to better standard of living (Notestein, 1961). The child was a parent's belief in a fortune worthwhileness (Ross, 1967). Now with changes in society the situation is changing. Leonard Miles and Ker stress that children should be wanted and planned for in time and number, as a vital factor in the building together of the lives of the partners (Miles and Ker, 1947).

Table III.20 shows the distribution of married respondents by number of children. 38.0 per cent of the respondents had only two children and 34.0 per cent had only one child while 11.0 per cent of respondents had no children. A very striking feature is that only nine respondents reported having three children and only four respondents had four and more than four children. According to Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) family life in general and children in particular are highly salient factors in producing role conflict. Jain's study (1988) of middle class educated women majority of respondents reported having not more than two children. Many other empirical studies as well as the present study reinforce the view that high educational level and entry into

Table III.20 : Distribution of Married Respondents by Number of Children

(Nos.)

Number of Children	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
None	2 (6.1)	3 (10.7)	3 (20.0)	8 (11.0)
1	11 (33.3)	9 (32.1)	6 (40.0)	26 (34.0)
2	14 (42.4)	9 (32.1)	6 (40.0)	29 (38.0)
3	6 (18.2)	3 (10.7)	—	9 (12.0)
4 & Above	—	4 (32.1)	—	4 (5.0)
Total No. of Married Respondents	33 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	76 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total number of married respondents.

economic activity tends to postpone marriage and thereby having a direct correlation with the number of children (Papola, 1986). It is evident from various studies that respondents favour small size family (Jain, 1988; Misra, 1990). The number of children is obviously relevant because fewer children mean less work (Hoffman, 1963, p.35). The average number of children per married respondents come out to be 1.8 (III.21). Respondents in

Table III.21 : Average Number of Children Per Married Respondent According to Age-Group

(Nos.)

Age-Group	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
25 - 35	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.3
35 - 45	2.3	2.6	1.3	2.1
45 & Above	2.2	2.4	-	2.4
Average no. of children per married res- pondent	1.7	2.0	1.3	1.8
Age parity index	(1.22)	(1.12)	(0.53)	(1.03)

Note : (i) Respondents below 25 have no children.

(ii) Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

Central government have low average age (31.9 years) and hence average number of children is also low (1.7). In private sector the average number of children is still lower corresponding to lower average age of respondents (27.8 years). A thorough look at the table shows that with increasing age the average number of children increases - the average was 1.3 for the age group 25-35 and 2.1 for 35-45 and 2.4 for 45 years and above. This shows that women's participation in the gainful activity is the dominant factor which influences fertility

whereas duration of married life also acts as an intervening variable (Srivastava, 1978). Furthermore, due to nuclear type of family situation respondents find it convenient to have less children to lessen the strain of the dual role.

One important factor which is intimately related with married women's employment is their family situation. It is usually suggested in various studies that in spite of mother's ability and willingness to work, whether she goes out or not depends upon the amount of care that the child needs (Chakraborty, 1977; Raj Gopalan 1963; Gordon and Hall, 1974; Kapur, 1969; Nye and Hoffman, 1963). Manpower Report (US Department of Labour, 1964) states that the rate of participation among women in their early thirties in USA is 21 per

Table III.22 : Distribution of Average Number of Children in Respondent's Households by Sex
(Nos.)

Sex	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Em- plo- yees
Male	0.9	1.1	0.6	0.9
Female	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.3
Total	2.3	2.5	1.8	2.2

Note : Children include all sons and daughters irrespective of age.

cent for those who have children under 3 years, 32 per cent for those who have children between 3 to 5 years, 44 per cent for those who have children between 6-11 years and 53 per cent for those who have children between 12-17 years. A conflicting finding by Srivastava (1978) shows that women's entrance into the labour force or if they are already in employment then their continuation in the labour market are not subject to the presence or absence of young children in their family.

In Table III.22 distribution of children in the respondents household by sex is analysed. It shows that 40.3 per cent of the children were males and 59.7 per cent were females. An interesting fact that emerges is that male-female ratio in our sample differs sharply with the male-female ratio of Lucknow urban (834 in 1981) and the male-female ratio in India which is unfavourable for females i.e., 934 females per thousand males in 1981. It is observed in all cases that average number of female children was higher than that of male children establishing the fact that spread of education and medical facilities has really brought down the mortality rate of females.

A considerable proportion of respondents reported having pre-school going children (Table III.23), thus establishing the fact that the presence of small

Table III.23 : Distribution of Children in Respondents' Household by Age-Groups

(Nos.)

Age Groups	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Below 5	19 (40.4)	13 (40.6)	3 (21.4)	35 (37.6)
5 - 10	21 (44.7)	10 (31.3)	5 (35.7)	36 (38.7)
10 - 15	7 (14.9)	9 (28.1)	6 (42.9)	22 (23.7)
Total	47 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	93 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

children does not restrict secretarial female's participation in the labour force.

In Table III.24 attitudinal bias of respondents regarding the sex of children is analysed. It is observed that 32.3 per cent of respondents had only male children and 26.5 per cent had only female children. Attitudinal bias seems unoperative here as 41.2 per cent of respondents had both male and female children and these figures doesn't reflect any strong preference for a male child over female child. Similar is the pattern

Table III.24 : Distribution of Married Respondents
According to Sex of Children (Nos.)

Category	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Only male children	9 (29.0)	9 (36.0)	4 (33.3)	22 (32.3)
Only female children	11 (35.5)	4 (16.0)	3 (25.0)	18 (26.5)
Both male and female children	11 (35.5)	12 (48.0)	5 (41.7)	28 (41.2)
Total	31 (100.0)	25 (100.0)	12 (100.0)	68 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

in private sector respondents. In State government too, percentage of respondents having only male child was 36.0 which was less than the percentage of respondents having both male and female children, whereas in Central government proportion of respondents having only female children and both male and female children is similar i.e. 35.5 per cent but proportion of respondents having only male children is less (29.0 per cent). The crux of the matter is that the traditional norms are no longer in currency and the respondents prefer small family limiting it after second or third child.

Table III.25 : Distribution of Respondents According to Time-Gap Between Children
(Nos.)

Type of Gap	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
0	1	2	3	4
<u>Between Marriage and First Child</u>				
1 Year	14 (45.2)	12 (48.0)	5 (41.7)	31 (45.6)
2 Years	14 (45.2)	6 (24.0)	6 (50.0)	26 (38.2)
3 Years	-	4 (16.0)	1 (8.3)	5 (7.3)
More than 3 Years	3 (9.7)	3 (12.0)	-	6 (8.8)
Total	31 (100.0)	25 (100.0)	12 (100.0)	68 (100.0)
<u>Between First & Second Child</u>				
1 Year	2 (10.0)	1 (6.3)	1 (16.6)	4 (9.5)
2 Years	6 (30.0)	7 (43.7)	1 (16.6)	14 (33.3)
3 Years	4 (20.0)	2 (12.5)	1 (16.6)	7 (16.7)
More than 3 Years	8 (40.0)	6 (37.5)	3 (50.0)	17 (40.5)
Total	20 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	42 (100.0)

Contd/-

Table III.25 Contd.

	0	1	2	3	4
<u>Between Second & Third Child</u>					
1 Year	-	-	-	-	-
2 Years	1	2	-	3	
	(16.6)	(28.6)		(23.1)	
3 Years	1	5	-	6	
	(16.6)	(71.4)		(46.2)	
More than 3 Years	4	-	-	4	
	(66.7)			(30.8)	
Total	6	7	-	13	
	(100.0)	(100.0)		(100.0)	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

Educational level and the awareness about family planning goes along well. Proper spacing of children is an integral part of family planning. Due to high infant mortality in India it has been medically recommended that a gap of at least 2-3 years is highly favourably for the mother and child. In Table III.25 it is observed that majority of the respondents had their first child within first two years of marriage as the average age of marriage is comparatively high. Proper spacing needs to be maintained between first and second child. 40.5 per cent of respondents maintained a gap of more than 3 years and 33.3 per cent observed a gap of 2 years. Only 9.5 per cent of respondents claimed having only a gap of one year between two children.

A total of only 13 respondents claimed having a third child and 46.2 per cent of these respondents maintained a gap of 3 years and 30.8 per cent maintained a gap of more than 3 years. A striking feature is that the respondents in private sector had three children as most of the respondent are from unmarried age group.

III.3.4 Size and Structure of Family : In our study an average family size of 4.4 members per household is found (Table III.26). The table shows that 26.3 per

Table III.26 : Distribution of Respondents According to Size of Household

(Nos.)

Number of Members	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
1 - 3	12 (26.1)	9 (18.00)	14 (37.8)	35 (26.3)
4 - 6	23 (50.0)	26 (52.0)	20 (54.1)	69 (51.9)
7 - 9	8 (17.4)	13 (26.0)	3 (8.1)	24 (18.0)
9 & above	3 (6.5)	2 (4.0)	-	5 (3.7)
Total Respondents	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)
Average size of household	4.6	4.7	3.9	4.4

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

cent of the households have 1-3 members, 51.9 per cent of households have 4-6 members and 18.0 per cent of households have 7-9 members. Only 5 respondents who belonged to joint family reported having more than 9 members in their family. Similar pattern of family size was observed by Jain (1988).

Table III.27 supports the view that small size of households are preferred and the major reason for the small size of households is that 94.7 per cent of the respondents belong to nuclear families as shown in the table. The joint family system has been the most important structural unit of the Indian society since

Table III.27 : Distribution of Respondents According to Family Structure

Family Structure	(Nos.)			
	Central Govern-ment Employees	State Govern-ment Employees	Private (Act) Estab-lishment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Nuclear Family	43 (93.5)	48 (96.0)	35 (94.6)	126 (94.7)
Joint Family	3 (6.5)	2 (4.0)	2 (5.4)	7 (5.3)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

time immemorial. In modern times, however, the traditional joint family is breaking up and new type of family pattern i.e., nuclear type has come forth due to industrialisation, urbanisation, wide communication and western type of education and ideologies (Sahai, 1973).

In the present sample only 5.3 per cent of the households are joint family units. Economic factors have probably been the main determinants for increasing family separation and the inability of the elders to lend support to the growing population has forced many sons to leave home to seek their livelihood in the growing cities (Ross, 1961). Now the trend is towards the nuclear family. After comparing 250 societies of the world Murdock concluded that the nuclear family exists as a distinct and strongly functional group in every society and that it is universal because everywhere it performs four functions essential to human life — a sexual function, a reproductive function, an economic function and an educational or socialising function (Burton, 1976). Hence a nuclear family pattern is functionally adjustable to modern, urban and industrial economy.

III.3.5 Residential Characteristics : Table III.28 shows the distribution of respondents according to residential characteristics. The table highlights that 95 per cent of unmarried respondents are residing with

their parents except three, out of which one female was staying in working girls hostel, one with relatives and one on her own. Majority of the married respondents are seen living with their husbands. Almost all the widowed respondents are living on their own. A closer look at the table shows that in Central government 41.3 per cent of respondents are living with their husband, 30.4 per cent with in-laws and in State government 20

Table III.28 : Distribution of Respondents According to Residential Characteristics (Nos.)

Residential Characteristics	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
With parents	12 (26.1)	21 (42.0)	21 (56.8)	54 (40.6)
In-laws	14 (30.4)	13 (26.0)	7 (18.9)	34 (25.6)
On own	1 (2.2)	10 (20.0)	1 (2.7)	12 (9.0)
With husband	19 (41.3)	5 (10.0)	7 (18.9)	31 (23.3)
In Hostel	-	-	1 (2.7)	1 (0.8)
With relatives	-	1 (2.0)	-	1 (0.8)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

per cent of the respondents are seen living on their own, while the percentage of widow in this category is 22 per cent.

III.4. Parental Background

Family is the bridge between an individual and the community. This section throws light upon the size, educational level, employment status, occupation, income levels of the parental family of the respondents. These

Table III.29 : Distribution of Parental Households
According to Number of Households

(Nos.)

Size of Household	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Em- ployees
1 - 3	20 (44.4)	14 (31.8)	10 (33.3)	44 (36.9)
4 - 5	18 (40.0)	22 (50.0)	16 (53.3)	55 (46.2)
6 - 7	6 (13.3)	7 (15.9)	4 (13.3)	17 (14.3)
8 & Above	1 (2.2)	1 (2.3)	-	2 (1.7)
Total Respondents	45 (100.0)	44 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	119 (100.0)
Average size size of household	3.7	3.6	3.3	3.6

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

variables help us in determining the chances of adopting new roles by women members. Family background plays a vital role in motivating individuals to enter the workforce and also in choice of career.

III.4.1 Size : The average size of the parental household of the respondents is 3.6 (Table III.29). 36.9 per cent of the households had between 1-3 member and 46.2 per cent had 4-5 member. Only 14.3 per cent households had 6-7 members and 1.7 per cent households had 8 members and above. In the case of private sector respondents their size of family doesn't exceed 4-5 members.

III.4.2 Educational Background : From Table III.30 it can be observed that 64.5 per cent of the parental family members are graduates and post-graduates, thus showing that the respondents come from a well educated parental background. With such a high educational background the table highlights a close linkage with the size of household (Table III.30). Educated parents motivate their daughters to enter the arena hitherto male dominated, of higher education and take up jobs thereafter.

III.4.3 Employment Status : Distribution of parental household members according to employment status is given in Table III.31. It can be observed that 52.3 per

Table III.30 : Distribution of Parental Household Members Above 5 Years of Age by Educational Level

(Nos.)

Educational Level	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Illiterate	-	5 (2.7)	2 (1.7)	7 (1.5)
Primary	2 (1.2)	5 (2.7)	3 (2.5)	10 (2.4)
Secondary	5 (2.9)	7 (3.8)	1 (0.8)	13 (2.7)
High School	18 (10.5)	20 (11.0)	4 (3.3)	42 (8.9)
Intermediate	44 (25.7)	28 (15.4)	20 (16.7)	92 (19.5)
Graduation	65 (38.0)	71 (39.0)	62 (51.7)	198 (41.9)
Post-Graduation	34 (19.9)	46 (25.3)	27 (22.5)	107 (22.6)
Doctorate	3 (1.8)	-	1 (0.8)	4 (0.8)
Total	171 (100.00)	182 (100.00)	120 (100.0)	473 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

cent of the parental family members are employed. 24.2 per cent of the members were housewives. Only 1.26 per cent represented the category of unemployed and were basically young educated girls. Almost the pattern of

employment status in all the three categories was similar.

Table III.31 : Distribution of Parental Household Members According to Employment Status

(Nos.)

Employment Status	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Children	1 (0.6)	-	-	1 (0.2)
Student	24 (13.9)	22 (12.1)	10 (8.3)	56 (11.8)
Housewives	44 (25.6)	40 (21.9)	31 (25.8)	115 (24.3)
Employed	78 (45.3)	102 (56.0)	68 (56.7)	248 (52.3)
Unemployed	3 (1.7)	2 (11.0)	1 (0.8)	6 (10.1)
Retired/ Disabled	22 (12.8)	16 (8.8)	10 (8.3)	48 (10.1)
Total	172 (100.00)	182 (100.00)	120 (100.00)	474 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

III.4.4 Occupational Status : Table III.32 highlights the occupational status of parental family members. It is observed that 54.4 per cent of the parental family members of the respondents are in government service and 16.9 per cent are in private service. 5.24 per cent of the members are in business

and 11 per cent are self-employed professionals. Only in case of private sector respondents there is significantly lower representation in government service and comparatively higher representation in private sector jobs. Rest of the categories account for almost similar occupational status.

Table III.32 : Distribution of Employed Members of Parental Family by Occupation (Nos.)

Occupation	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Government Service	48 (61.5)	63 (61.8)	24 (35.3)	135 (54.4)
Private Service	7 (8.9)	9 (8.8)	26 (38.2)	42 (16.9)
Business	7 (8.9)	4 (3.9)	2 (2.9)	13 (5.2)
Self-employed professionals	11 (14.1)	8 (7.8)	8 (11.8)	27 (10.9)
Teachers	3 (3.8)	18 (17.6)	4 (5.9)	25 (10.1)
Bank Employees	2 (2.6)	-	4 (5.9)	6 (2.4)
Agriculture	-	-	-	-
Total	78 (100.00)	102 (100.00)	68 (100.00)	248 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

III.4.5 Income Level : We have hypothesised that higher the educational level and higher the income of the respondent, the higher will be the level of change

Table III.33 : Distribution of Parental According Monthly Income (Nos.)

Monthly House- hold Income (In '000 Rs.)	Central Govern- ment Employees	State Govern- ment Employees	Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Below 1.5	6 (13.3)	4 (9.1)	1 (3.3)	11 (9.2)
1.5 - 3.0	7 (15.6)	8 (18.2)	7 (23.3)	22 (18.5)
3.0 - 4.5	13 (28.9)	11 (25.0)	8 (26.6)	33 (27.7)
4.5 - 6.0	7 (15.5)	8 (18.2)	7 (23.3)	21 (17.6)
6.0 - 7.5	6 (13.3)	3 (6.8)	3 (10.0)	12 (10.1)
7.5 - 9.0	1 (2.2)	8 (18.2)	2 (6.7)	11 (2.5)
9.0 & Above	5 (11.1)	2 (4.5)	2 (6.7)	9 (7.5)
Total	45 (100.0)	44 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	119 (100.0)
Average Montly House- hold Income	5293	4717	4871	4974
Per capita Income	1385	1140	1218	1247

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total figure in that category.

of attitudes. Since women are generally considered to be secondary earner and supplement the family income it was thought pertinent here to see if the total family income of the respondent also had any relationship with the level of change of attitude.

It is the total family income which determines the purchasing power of the family and socio-economic strata of society to which they belong. This socio-economic group motivates and moulds an individual's attitudes, beliefs and behaviour.

Table III.34 shows that the average monthly household income of the respondents parental family was Rs.4974 and the per capita income was Rs.1249. We observe that 27.7 per cent respondents come from households with monthly income of Rs.3.0 to 4.5 thousand and 17.7 per cent belong to families with monthly income of 4.5 - 6.0 thousand. Only 9.2 per cent of the respondents' parental household members had a monthly income of less than Rs.1500. Thus our hypothesis that a major proportion of women secretarial workers belong to middle income urban families is corroborated by our data. We also observe that the Central government respondent households have more than average monthly income (Rs.5293). The per capita income estimates show that Central government respondents come from relatively higher income households (i.e., Rs.1385). They are

followed by private sector (Rs.1218). Family members of State government respondent households have relatively lower per capita income of only Rs.1140.

III.5 Conclusion

We may now sum up the socio-economic characteristics of the secretarial women workers as revealed by our study. Firstly, women's entry into secretarial cadres is a recent phenomenon and are from the younger age group i.e., average age being 31.3 years. Private sector respondents are relatively more recent entrants into the labour market. One remarkable feature is that Hindus dominate the sample and inspite of so many reservation efforts for SC and backward castes this class failed to show up in our sample. Almost all the respondents belong to fairly well educated families and the household members of the respondents are economically active. The analysis reveals that religion strongly determines the phenomenon of women entering the labour market. Muslim females find a less than proportionate representation in our sample.

The respondents belong to higher educated category of the population. Many respondents were trained in vocational courses and few enjoyed on-the-job training facilities. The trained respondents are seen more in the private sector category.

The study further reveals that out of the total economically active members of the sample household 66.1 per cent are in government service showing a close affinity between the career selected by respondents and that of household members.

Analysis of marital status of the respondents shows that 43.6 per cent of the respondents are married and nearly equal per cent (42.9) are un-married. Around 12.0 per cent of the respondents are widowed and are have joined the labour force after the death of their husbands. The number of divorcees and separated respondents is negligible thus implying that this phenomenon is still not accepted in the middle class families. A few young girls had claimed that even they were in the work force due to the death of their father. This implies that government provision of employing one member of family of the deceased is really helpful.

Our study reveals that high a educational level and entry into economic activity tends to postpone marriage and have a direct correlation with the number of children. The average number of children per married respondents comes out to be 1.8. Very few respondents reported having three children. The study reveals the fact that with increase in educational status our respondents are aware of the benefits of family planning. Type of family situation also determines the

number of children. In recent period nuclear type families have emerged hence to reduce the burden of dual role respondents favour small family limiting it after second or third child. Attitudinal bias seems unoperative as 41.2 per cent of respondents had both male and female children. Our married respondents had also properly spaced their children.

Residential characteristics of our respondents reveals that a majority of the respondents stayed with their husbands - if married, or with their parents - if un-married.

The analysis of the parental background of the respondents revealed that the respondents belong to small size families with good educational background. We find a close linkage between education and the size of family. It is observed that 64.5 per cent of the parental family members are graduates and post-graduates i.e. the respondents belong to a well educated parental background. Education of parents increase their horizon and motivate their daughters to seek education and training and enter the field that has hitherto been the male domain. An analysis into the employment status of female members of parental family revealed that a considerable number of them are employed. An interesting fact revealed by the study was that most of the respondents came from families where a majority of the members were in government service. The analysis

further reveals that the respondents choice of profession is closely linked with that of her parental family's profession. A study of the income levels of the respondents parental family highlights that our respondents belong to urban middle class strata of society. To sum up, we may say that our respondents are relatively young, are new entrants into labour force, may late, have few children, belong to nuclear families, are aware of family planning, reside with their husbands/fathers and have close affinity with the profession of their husband/father and above all belong to educated middle class families.

CHAPTER IV

Income and Expenditure Levels

IV.0 Introduction

The economic status of woman within her household is a good indicator of her status in the society as a whole. The income a working women earns is an important parameter which determines the extent of her 'control' within her household. In India it is a usually accepted view that the male is the primary earner and if the woman is earning her earning is considered to be merely supplementary in nature, i.e., - the ideal situation is that the husband provides subsistence to the family and wife does her traditional chores. Today, by and large, it is accepted that besides traditional roles women can assume modern role of 'wage earner'. The attitudes, beliefs and values of the Indian women and especially those who are educated have changed and we find more and more females are entering the realm of labour market (Akhtar and others, 1969; Arora, Bhattacharya and others, 1963; Baigh, 1976; Cormack, 1961; Desai, 1975; Hate, 1969; Kapur, 1974; Ramachandran, 1970). Accepting this situation we may explore how compatible the second role is and in what way it enhances the status of female in the household and thereby in the society. .pn 134

The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section deals with asset ownership of respondents' households. The second section throws light upon the level of household income and the contribution made by the respondents to household income. Total household expenditure on various items and the respondents' contribution to the expenditure is dealt in section three. The fourth section takes account of the net savings of the respondent households. Lastly, the conclusions of each section are summarised.

IV.1 Assets Owned

During the survey we experienced that the respondents were hesitant to declare the actual possession of durable goods and their values. Therefore, some underreporting of asset's value is not ruled out, more so in the case of the private sector. Distribution of households reporting possession of durable goods and assets is given in Table IV.1. This table shows that 37.6 per cent of respondents owned a house, while 27.8 per cent claimed possessing land. 90.2 per cent of the respondents did possess a refrigerator and 92.5 per cent reported owning television. A majority (72.9 per cent) of respondents showed that they do possess ornaments and as much as 66.9 per cent reported having scooter/two wheeler - one

Table IV.1 : Distribution of Households Reporting Possession of Durable Goods and Assets

(Nos.)

Assets	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Empl- yees
House	15 (32.6)	15 (30.0)	20 (54.1)	50 (37.6)
Land	12 (26.1)	12 (24.0)	13 (35.1)	37 (27.8)
Ornaments	34 (73.9)	34 (68.0)	29 (78.4)	97 (72.9)
Car	1 (2.2)	2 (4.0)	5 (13.5)	8 (6.0)
Scooter/two wheeler	35 (76.1)	32 (64.0)	22 (59.5)	89 (66.9)
Refrigerator	44 (95.7)	43 (86.0)	33 (89.2)	120 (90.2)
Television	44 (95.7)	47 (94.0)	32 (86.5)	123 (92.5)
VCR/VCP	5 (10.9)	10 (20.0)	11 (29.7)	26 (19.6)
Washing Machine	7 (15.2)	6 (12.0)	8 (21.6)	21 (15.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

of the cheap mode of conveyance in today's busy world. Almost one fifth of the respondents owned VCR/VCP which is a luxury item possessed usually by high income level families. As revealed from the table 15.8 per cent of the respondents possessed washing machines implying that

these middle class urban families depend on electronic goods to help in domestic chores as it is really difficult for the females to perform the dual role of the worker and the housewife.

A fairly large proportion (54.0 per cent) of private sector respondents owned a house and 35.1 per cent owned land, whereas only 32 per cent and 30 per cent of respondents from Central and State governments respectively owned a house and 26 per cent and 24 per cent owned land. Only one respondent from Central government and two respondents from State government reported possession of a car. Majority of respondents (72.9 per cent) claimed possession of ornaments as an asset. Households of private sector respondents are well off from the point of view of income (Table IV.3) as 50 per cent of households are having members in business and private service (Table III.12). 30 per cent of these respondents reported having the luxury item VCR/VCP and 22 per cent reported having washing machines.

Average value of durable goods and assets per respondent household is given in Table IV.2. The average value of goods and assets is Rs.1.2 lakh. private sector respondents are the richest having an average value of Rs.1.9 lakh of assets. These were followed by households of respondents in Central government

Table IV.2 : Average Values of Durable Goods and Assets
Per Respondent Household

(in Rs.)

Assets	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
House	68,479 (60.3)	52,000 (52.9)	114,865 (60.5)	75,188 (58.2)
Land	5,207 (4.6)	7,700 (7.8)	10,811 (5.7)	7,703 (6.0)
Ornaments	14,630 (12.9)	13,460 (13.7)	24,190 (13.7)	16,850 (13.1)
Car	696 (0.6)	3,700 (3.8)	13,378 (7.0)	5,354 (4.2)
Scooter/two wheeler	7,848 (6.9)	6,220 (6.3)	6,135 (3.2)	6,760 (5.2)
Other Durable goods	16,783 (14.8)	15,160 (15.4)	20,649 (10.9)	17,249 (13.4)
Total	113,643 (100.0)	98,240 (100.0)	190,028 (100.0)	129,104 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

possessing assets of about 1.1 lakh on an average. The least affluent, in terms of assets and durable goods ownership are State government respondent households.

House was the most prominent asset owned by the respondent households accounting for 58.2 per cent of the total value of assets. It was followed by other

durable goods such as T.V., Refrigerator, Washing machines (13.4 per cent) and Ornaments (13.0 per cent). Major proportion of investment made by all the three categories was in housing. Car ownership was a rarity among secretarial worker's household. Investment pattern as reflected from our data shows that government sector respondents invested more in ornaments, scooter/two wheeler and other durable goods, whereas private sector respondents households had invested more in housing.

IV.2 Income Level

IV.2.1 Household Income : The average monthly household income of our respondents is estimated at as Rs.5200 and ranged from Rs.5704 for Central government respondents to Rs.4892 in the case of private sector respondents (Table IV.3). It is observed that in our sample private sector respondent's households have the lowest average monthly income. The monthly per capita income of the total sample was recorded to be Rs.1,164. Monthly per capita income of private sector respondent households was highest (Rs.1,266) among the three categories undertaken for study. If per capita income is taken as the indicator of affluence of households then the private sector respondent households can be said to be the most affluent amongst the three categories studied.

Table IV.3 : Average Monthly Income

(in Rs.)

Category	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Self	2012 (35.3)	1907 (43.5)	1295 (22.3)	1773 (34.1)
Other family members	3692 (64.7)	3057 (61.6)	3597 (73.5)	3427 (65.9)
Total house- hold income	5704 (100.0)	4964 (100.0)	4892 (100.0)	5200 (100.0)
Per capita income	1232	1043	1266	1164

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

IV.2.2 Monthly Income of Respondents : The monthly income level of female workers is a good indicator of her economic status. It can also be assumed that her decision making and economic independence in the household and therefore in the society too, depends on her income level. The average monthly earning of the respondents in our sample is Rs.1773. The income reported from our sample is much lower than the average income of professional workers (Misra, 1990). Seidman (1978) observes in a study of women in clerical jobs in New England, USA that 'women in all types of clerical jobs earn less than the national average for women.... Wages of clerical workers have actually declined

relative to those of other women in the paid labourforce'. A comparison of our respondent's earning to Papola's study (1982) shows that pay revision has brought about changes in their level of earnings. Central government respondents had a higher income level, whereas respondents in private sector earned a relatively lower level of earnings. It needs to be mentioned that private sector respondents belong to younger age group and are new entrants lacking experience and any opportunity of on the job training facility.

Table IV.4 : Sources of Monthly Income of Respondent (Average)

(in Rs.)

Source of Income	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Service	1900.92 (94.5)	1744.54 (91.5)	1248.76 (96.5)	1660.70 (93.7)
Interest/ Dividend	4.35 (0.2)	33.20 (1.6)	13.52 (1.0)	13.99 (0.8)
Property	43.48 (2.2)	3.70 (0.2)	—	16.43 (0.9)
Pension	63.05 (3.1)	136.12 (7.1)	32.44 (2.5)	82.00 (4.6)
Total	2011.79 (100.0)	1907.56 (100.0)	1294.71 (100.0)	1773.12 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

Table IV.4 throws light upon the sources of income of the respondents. The basic major source of income of our respondents is through service (93.6 per cent). 4.6 per cent of total income comes from pension and the share of interest/dividend and property as a source of income is almost negligible. Amongst all the three categories of workers the importance of salary as the source of income for private sector respondents was relatively higher (96.4 per cent) followed by other two categories of respondents.

We had hypothesised that the level of earnings and educational status are positively correlated. Table

Table IV.5 : Average Monthly Level of Earnings and Educational Qualifications (in Rs.)

Qualification	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Employees
High School	1500	1400	530	1143
Intermediate	1500	1650	800	1316
Graduation	1815	1710	1265	1596
Post-Graduation	2107	1816	1294	1739
Vocational Training	2293	1588	1408	1763
On-the-Job Training	1893	1300	1850	1681

IV.5 corroborates our hypothesis as it reveals that respondents with higher academic qualifications have higher average monthly income in almost all cases. Even training affects the income of the respondents. We find the respondents with training earn more than the respondents who are just graduates or post-graduates. The data reveal that average earnings of post graduates in Central Government (Rs.2107) is more than that in the other two categories. Similarly respondents having vocational training in Central government earn more (Rs.2293) as compared to other categories.

Turning to on-the-job training we observe that respondents with on-the-job training in Central government and private sector earn more (Rs.1893 and Rs.1850) than the respondents in State government (Rs.1300).

IV.2.3 Expenditure Pattern : As has already been discussed in many studies (Jain, 1985; Srivastava, 1978; Rathaur, 1990) the majority of women are motivated to work either to raise the standard of living or to meet the daily requirements of the family. How their earnings are utilised is shown in Table IV.6. 40.6 per cent of the respondents said that their salary was used in fulfilling their personal needs, whereas 33.8 per cent of the respondents said that their salary contributed to meet daily requirements and raising the

standard of living. About half of the respondents reported that their earnings help them to save something to meet future contingencies. One-fifth of the respondents reported that their earning helped them to maintain a conveyance. The earnings of most of the respondents in government jobs were not exclusively

Table IV.6 : Major Items on which Respondent's Salary is Spent

(Nos.)

Items	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Contributed towards clothes, cosmetics and personal needs	16 (34.8)	22 (24.0)	26 (70.3)	54 (40.6)
Daily food re- quirements and raising the standard of living	12 (26.0)	25 (50.0)	8 (21.6)	45 (33.8)
Provides good education to children/bro- ther or sister	9 (19.6)	9 (18.0)	6 (16.2)	24 (18.0)
Living in a better house	7 (15.2)	5 (10.0)	3 (9.1)	15 (11.3)
Maintaining a conveyance	6 (13.0)	12 (24.0)	8 (21.6)	26 (19.5)
Saving something	34 (73.9)	21 (42.0)	11 (29.7)	66 (49.6)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

enjoyed by themselves but enabled the family to meet the daily requirement and added to the economic betterment of their family, whereas 70.3 per cent of private sector respondents utilised their earning for personal needs.

IV.2.4 Monthly Income of Other Family Members : Table IV.7 shows the average monthly income of other family

Table IV.7 : Average Income of Other Family Members by Different Sources

(in Rs.)

Source of Income	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Salary	2712.71 (73.5)	2220.72 (72.6)	2095.84 (58.3)	2356.15 (68.7)
Business	163.05 (4.4)	216.00 (7.1)	527.03 (14.6)	284.21 (8.3)
Agriculture	108.70 (2.9)	20.00 (0.6)	-	45.12 (1.3)
Interest/ Dividend	-	53.60 (1.7)	81.08 (2.2)	44.96 (1.3)
Profession	86.96 (2.3)	158.00 (5.2)	297.30 (8.3)	172.18 (5.0)
Property	115.22 (3.1)	148.00 (4.8)	181.75 (5.0)	148.62 (4.3)
Pension	150.00 (4.1)	199.98 (6.5)	538.54 (15.0)	279.44 (8.1)
Total	3692.08 (100.00)	3056.82 (100.00)	3597.29 (100.00)	3426.89 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

members which comes to Rs.3427. Average income of other family members of Central government employees was highest (Rs.3692) followed by private sector (Rs.3597) and the State government employees (Rs.3056).

The table also shows the sources of income of other family members. We observe that the main source of income of other family members is through service (68.7 per cent) followed by business (8.3 per cent) and pension (8.1 per cent). The contribution of agriculture, interest/dividend and property to total income was very small. Thus our study shows that the secretarial female workers usually come from middle class families whose family members are dependent mainly on service as a source of earning. Similar findings were observed by Ranade and Ramachandran (1970), Talwar (1984) and Rathaur (1990). We find that agriculture serves as the source of income to only 1.3 per cent of our respondents family members which is in consonance to the finding of Rathaur (1990) for unmarried working women of Varanasi (1.6 per cent). The contribution of service to income of family members is higher in the case of public sector employee (i.e., around 73 per cent) as compared to the private sector (i.e., 58.3 per cent). The contribution of business and pension to total monthly income of other family members of private sector employees is relatively higher (i.e., 14.6 and 15.0 per cent respectively) as compared to the

Central and State government employees. This higher contribution of business and pension to the total income can be attributed to relatively higher proportion of household members of private sector respondents in business (8.3 per cent) and retired persons (6.3 per cent) when compared to Central and State government respondents family members (Table III.12 and III.13). Service as a source of income for other family members is lower than average for private sector and it is much higher than average for them in profession. No family member of private sector employee had agriculture as a source of earning.

IV.2.5 Contribution to Total Household Income : To get an idea of respondent's position within the household and their economic status we have dealt with their contribution to total household income. Table IV.3 shows that the respondents contribute 34.1 per cent of total household income. The findings of Ranade and Ramachandran (1970) study of women in Delhi show that one-third of the women interviewed were earning 60 per cent of their families income but due to low income and high prices their standard of living was not raised. The highest contribution to household income is from State government employees (43.5 per cent) followed by Central government respondents (35.6 per cent). Respondents of private sector contribute less than the average contribution made by the respondents in all the

categories i.e., only 22.3 per cent. The reason behind this is that almost 60 per cent of the respondents are unmarried and relatively young and are living with their parents (III.18). Besides this as established earlier (Table IV.4) their average income is also relatively low. It is very clear through this analysis that women secretarial workers do supplement the total income of the family and contribute significantly to it which helps to enhance their status in the household.

IV.3 Household Expenditure

IV.3.1 Total Monthly Household Expenditure : Total monthly household expenditure of the respondent was Rs.3,135. From Table IV.8 it is observed that the total amount spent in household purchases is about 60 per cent of the total household income. Keeping incidence of recall bias into consideration some degree of under reporting seems to be present in the sample. Private sector respondents' households had the highest monthly expenditure of Rs.3277 followed by Central government respondents households (Rs.3233). State government respondent households have the lowest expenditure of Rs.2,939.

Almost, similar picture emerges while considering per capita household expenditure. Private sector respondent households had the highest per capita

household expenditure of Rs.848 followed by Central government respondent households per capita expenditure of Rs.698. Both Central and State government respondents households have below average per capita household expenditure. State government respondent households have the lowest per capita expenditure.

Table IV.8 shows that expenditure on food formed one-third (36.7 per cent) of the total expenditure highlighting the fact that the private sector respondent households spend more on non-food items than those belonging to Central government and State government respondent households in which case expenditure on food forms a major part of the total expenditure. Clothing/footwear accounted for 10.2 per cent of the expenditure followed by transport (9.4 per cent) and house rent (9.1 per cent). 12.3 per cent expenditure is incurred on miscellaneous items. Expenditure on education is seen to be lesser in private sector respondent households as more respondents are from younger age group and are unmarried hence, the number of children is less whereas expenditure on the same item is above average in Central and State government respondent households. Expenditure in entertainment was only 4.5 per cent which is very low (Rs.141). Private sector respondent households spend above average on servants. As 60.45 per cent (Table IV.1) private sector respondent

Table IV.8 : Average Monthly Household Expenditure

(in Rs.)

Items	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
Food	1176 (36.4)	1145 (38.9)	1124 (34.3)	1150 (36.7)
Fuel/ Electricity	182 (5.6)	172 (5.8)	241 (7.3)	194 (6.2)
Clothing/ Footwear	329 (10.2)	272 (9.3)	366 (11.2)	318 (10.2)
Medical expenses	82 (2.5)	115 (3.9)	79 (2.4)	93 (2.9)
Education	231 (7.1)	219 (7.5)	145 (4.4)	202 (6.4)
Transport	337 (10.4)	209 (7.5)	353 (10.8)	293 (9.4)
Entertainment	166 (5.1)	111 (3.8)	150 (4.6)	141 (4.5)
House rent	332 (10.3)	278 (9.5)	239 (7.3)	286 (9.1)
Servants	60 (1.9)	54 (1.8)	91 (2.7)	66 (2.1)
Miscellaneous	337 (10.4)	347 (11.8)	491 (15.0)	384 (12.3)
Total	323 (100.0)	2939 (100.0)	3277 (100.0)	3135 (100.0)
Per capita expenditure	698	617	848	702

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

households owned houses, hence their expenses on house rent is relatively lower i.e., only 7.3 per cent of the total expenditure.

IV.3.2 Respondents Contribution to Total Expenditure :

In this section we have examined to what extent the respondents contribute to total household expenditure. For the purpose of greater analytical convenience, we have examined separately respondents living with their parents, living singly and living with their husband's and in-laws. This is done to see if any differences in the pattern of contribution to household expenditure is influenced by residential characteristics of the respondents.

Table IV.9 shows the distribution of respondents living with their parents/singly according to contribution to household expenditure. It was observed that 80.7 per cent of respondents living with their parents gave a part of their salary to their parents for household expenditure whereas, only 19.3 per cent of the respondents including the three respondents who are living singly in hostel kept all their salary for their own use and hence do not contribute to the household expenditure. The age old convention that parents support their daughters is seen breaking away because here a large proportion of unmarried girls are seen supporting their parents. It was observed during the

Table IV.9 : Distribution of Respondents Living with Their Parents According to Contribution to Household Expenditure

(Nos.)

Use of Salary	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Empl-oyees
Keep all the salary for self	5 (38.5)	2 (0.1)	4 (18.2)	11 (10.3)
Give a part of it to parents	8 (61.5)	20 (90.9)	18 (81.8)	46 (80.7)
Total	13 (100.0)	22 (100.0)	22 (100.0)	57 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

survey that unmarried respondents who kept their salary for their own use were from more affluent households and where parents were in good jobs. Respondents gave major proportion of their earnings to parents as parents need large amount of money at the time of the marriage of their daughter inspite of legal ban on dowry. In a way working daughters strengthen their parents' hands in drawing up their dowry. More than a third of Central government respondents do not contribute at all to the household expenditure, whereas only 9.1 per cent of the respondents of State government keep their salary for their own use.

A fairly different picture emerges from Table IV.10 regarding respondents who are living with their husbands and in-laws. It was observed that 72.4 per cent respondents household expenditure is contributed by both husband and wife. The data show that though women secretarial workers belong to middle class families they have not joined the workforce just to pass their time but instead to support their family economically. Only three respondents from private sector made no contribution to the household expenditure. They belong

Table IV.10 : Distribution of Respondents Living with Their Husband, In-laws According to Contribution to Household Expenditure

(Nos.)

Contribution to Household Expenditure	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
By the res-pondent alone	5 (15.2)	7 (25.0)	1 (6.7)	13 (17.1)
By the husband alone	-	-	3 (20.0)	3 (3.9)
By both	28 (84.8)	16 (57.1)	11 (73.4)	55 (72.4)
By respondent & other members	-	5 (17.7)	-	5 (6.6)
Total	33 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	76 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

to business class families hence their pursuit of job was basically to utilise their time and education. The other reason was that they are seen staying in joint family, where their earnings was considered to be meagre and 'secondary'. Almost all the respondents (13 in number) who were the sole contributor to household expenditure were widowed except one who was divorced. Five widowed (17.8 per cent) respondents reported that their family expenditure was contributed by them and other family members also. In totality it can be concluded that unmarried female's earnings were kept by their parents for facilitating them in collecting dowry while married female's earnings contributed towards achieving a better standard of living.

IV.3.3 Per cent Contribution to Household Expenditure :

From the above analysis it is observed that large proportion of respondents whether living with their parents or with their husbands/in-laws do contribute to household expenditure. To analyse more deeply, it is proper to study their per cent contribution to the household expenditure. In Table IV.11 per cent contribution of respondents living with their parents to household expenditure is recorded. It was observed earlier that very few girls stated that they do not contribute to the household expenditure at all. It is seen that average per cent contribution of unmarried respondents staying with their parents to household

Table IV.11 : Per cent Contribution of Respondents Living with Their Parents to Household Expenditure

(Nos.)

Per cent Contribution to Household Expenditure	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Below 40	4 (50.0)	11 (57.9)	15 (93.8)	30 (69.7)
40 - 50	1 (12.5)	2 (10.5)	1 (6.2)	4 (9.3)
50 - 60	-	2 (10.5)	-	2 (4.6)
60 - 70	-	2 (10.5)	-	2 (4.6)
70 & Above	3 (37.5)	2 (10.5)	-	5 (11.6)
Total	8 (100.0)	19 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	43 (100.0)
Average % contribution	55.2	33.3	23.9	33.9

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

expenditure is 33.9. This is significant because the respondent living with their parents belong to younger age group and their parents are still earning but they do accept their earnings for household expenditure away from the traditional thinking. Whatsoever these unmarried girls contribute their contribution is significant enough to support their parents. 69.7 per cent of the respondents living with their parents

contributed less than 40 per cent of the household expenditure, 9.3 per cent contributed between 40-50 per cent and the remaining 20 per cent respondents contributed above 50 per cent to the household expenditure. Those who contribute above 50 per cent are the females who have taken up job due to the death of their father.

It was only in the case of Central government respondents that they contributed more than the average to the household expenditure. In this case 37.5 per cent of the respondents staying with their parents contributed 70 per cent and above to the household expenditure. Less than average per cent contribution is made by the respondents of the private sector.

After looking into the contribution made by the unmarried respondents it will be interesting to examine the contribution of married respondents in the household expenditure (Table IV.12). The table shows that the average per cent contribution of respondents staying with their husbands is 42 per cent. Only 21.8 per cent of respondents contribute below 40 per cent of the household expenditure, whereas 41.8 per cent of the respondents contribute between 50-60 per cent and 29.1 per cent of respondents contribute 80 per cent and above to the household expenditure. To be more precise, about 30 per cent of the respondents staying with their husbands contribute below 50 per cent to the household

Table IV.12 : Per cent Contribution of Respondents Living with Their Husbands to Total Household Expenditure

Per cent Contribution to Expenditure	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Below 40	10 (35.7)	-	2 (18.2)	12 (21.8)
40 - 50	2 (7.1)	1 (6.3)	1 (9.1)	4 (7.3)
50 - 60	12 (42.8)	4 (25.0)	7 (63.6)	23 (41.8)
60 - 70	-	-	-	-
70 - 80	-	-	-	-
80 & above	4 (14.3)	11 (68.8)	1 (9.1)	16 (29.1)
Total	28 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	55 (100.0)
Average % contribution	33.3	72.5	19.8	42.0

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

expenditure and 70 per cent of the respondents contribute above 50 per cent to the household expenditure. Respondents belonging to State government organisation contribute an average of 72.5 per cent to the household expenditure followed by the respondents of Central government (33.3 per cent) which is less than the

average contribution (42.0 per cent) of the married respondents. As we had established earlier the private sector respondents work only to utilise their time and education hence their earning is also considered to be only marginal and their contribution is also very low i.e., 19.8 per cent to the total household expenditure. Only one married respondent of private sector contributes 80.0 per cent and above to the total household expenditure as compared to 11 (68.8 per cent) respondents from State government and 4 (14.3 per cent) respondents from Central government who contributed 80 per cent and above to the household expenditure.

IV.4 Savings

A general idea of gross savings per respondent household can be arrived at by deducting average household expenditure from the average household income (Table IV.13). The average saving as calculated is Rs.2062 per month. This includes income tax payment, provident fund contribution and other monthly deductions from the salary. Hence net savings would be lower. Savings ranged from Rs.1615 for private sector respondents to Rs.2440 for Central government. Savings was highest in the case of Central government respondents (42.9 per cent) and lowest for private sector respondents (33.0 per cent).

Table IV.13 : Savings Per Month Per Household

(in Rs.)

Items	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Es- tablish- ment Employees	Total Emple- yees
1. Average Income	5682.13 (100.0)	4964.38 (100.0)	4892.00 (100.0)	5200.00 (100.0)
2. Average expenditure	3241.95 (57.1)	2939.30 (59.2)	3277.43 (67.0)	3238.04 (60.4)
3. Savings (1-2)	2440.18 (43.0)	2025.08 (40.8)	1614.57 (33.0)	2061.96 (39.7)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

IV.5 Conclusion

The above analysis of asset ownership, income earned and expenditure pattern shows that our respondents belong to middle income families. The average value of durable goods and assets possessed by secretarial worker households is around Rs.1.2 lakhs. Almost 90 per cent of the respondents reported possession of refrigerator and television set. Above 70 per cent of respondents claimed that they do possess ornaments. Possession of scooter/two wheeler was also reported by majority of respondents. We observed that our respondents made use of electronic goods like washing machine in their domestic chores. 78.0 per cent

of the average value of durable goods and assets was invested in assets like house, land and ornaments.

We observed while analysing the level of earnings of the respondents that secretarial workers earning was lower than the earnings of the females in professional jobs. The average monthly income was calculated to be Rs.1,773. Central government respondents had a higher income level whereas private sector respondents had a relatively low level of earnings due to the fact that they belong to younger age group and were recent entrants to the labour force lacking experience and opportunity to avail on the job training facility which is hypothesised to affect the level of earnings.

The basic major source of income of our respondents in all the three categories was service. Almost similar picture emerges while analysing the level of earnings and sources of income of other family members. Our hypothesis that differences in earnings is due to differences in education, experience and on the job training is corroborated by our data. Thus respondents with lower educational qualification had the lower average earning and those having post graduation qualification had the highest average earning.

An analysis into the data of household expenditure shows that one third of the total expenditure is spent on food by all the three categories. Respondents living

with parents contributed significantly to their family's total expenditure. Only one-fifth of the respondents did not contribute to household expenditure. An interesting picture emerges in case of married respondents. Almost all respondents living with their husbands contributed to household expenditure. Married respondents contributed above 50 per cent to the total expenditure, thus sharing the burden with their spouses in the household equally.

To conclude once women enter the labour market as secretarial workers, they achieve the long standing desire of equality, both in terms of income and in sharing the household burden of expenditure and maintaining standard of living.

CHAPTER V

Motivation to Work and Working Conditions

V.0 Introduction

At any given point of time, people vary in the extent to which they are willing to drive their energies towards the attainment of certain goals. People not only differ in their ability to do so, but also in their 'will' or motivation to do so. Motives have been defined as needs, wants, drives, or impulses within an individual (Maslow, 1954). Motivation theory explains how behaviour gets started, is energised, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism (Maslow, 1954).

The traditional concept regarding the 'whys' of human behaviour at work has been that people work either for consideration of fear or for monetary rewards. The concept of 'rational man' was put forth to explain the motivational process. According to this view man is a rational being and works for his economic betterment, if given a proper opportunity.

The motivation to work among women develops in a context different from that in the case of men. Man's major social roles, those of husband and father, are realised in the realm of work. For women the motivation to work germinates in a "contingency spectrum" (Epstein,

1970) - as a refuge against adversity. Many scholars view the question of women's work merely in economic terms, considering women as an additional source of labour to be manipulated according to the needs of the market (Amsden, 1980; Beechey, 1978; Boserup, 1970; Bruegel, 1979; Huntington, 1975; Knychala, 1977; Gunderson, 1976; Tilly and Scott, 1978). This approach was particularly dominant during periods of rapid industrialisation.

In recent years, women have broken away in many respects from their traditional place in society and it is proper to focus on the factors motivating them to take up such a mobilising step. It is just as important to observe their status and working conditions once they do enter the workforce, specially for women who have entered male-dominated occupations. Working conditions include a study of recruitment benefits, hours of work, travel to and from work-place, physical environment etc. (University of Michigan Survey, 1976). Various Indian studies have focussed upon these parameters determining the working conditions of women workers (Unwalla, 1977; Sharan, 1985; Sharma, 1973; Jain, 1988; Kraisonswasdi, 1989) and factors motivating them to join the workforce (Wadhera, 1976; Papola, 1982; Jain, 1988; Ramanna and Bambawala, 1987; Mathur, 1992; Vianello and Siemienka, 1990).

V.1 Motivational Factors

This section deals with the important issue of why women take up clerical jobs keeping in mind that there has been a sharp increase in the number of female workers in clerical cadre in Lucknow urban. The number of female urban workers in the clerical cadre has increased to 2542 in 1981 from mere 923 in 1971 in Lucknow urban percentage change during the decade being 175.41, highest amongst all occupational categories (Census 1981). Factors motivating clerical women workers to take up vocational training and joining the workforces and also factors affecting job preferences are dealt with here.

V.1.1 Factors Affecting Motivation to Take Up Vocational Training : Education is used to fill a gap of time before marriage and to help ensure a match with a highly educated male (Blumberg and Dwaraki, 1980). Another consequence follows once a woman has been educated, i.e. the possibility of her entrance into gainful employment. Middle class families faced with a rising cost of living and dowry problems weighed the financial gains from their daughter's income against traditional norms of female seclusion. To utilise their vacant time, females take up short vocational courses to help them secure white-collar jobs and supplement their family income and to ensure that their parents are

Table V.1 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Motivating Them to Take up Vocational Training

(Nos.)

Category	Status Symbol	Academic Interest	Desire to Pursue a Job	Parental Pressure	Personality Development	Other Factors	Total
Central Govt. Employee	-	3 (6.5)	6 (13.0)	1 (2.1)	3 (6.5)	1 (2.1)	14 (30.4)
State Govt. Employee	-	2 (4.0)	4 (8.0)	-	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	8 (16.0)
Private Sector Employee	3 (8.1)	1 (2.7)	10 (27.0)	-	2 (5.4)	4 (10.8)	20 (54.0)
Total Employee	3 (2.2)	6 (4.5)	20 (15.0)	1 (0.7)	6 (4.5)	6 (4.5)	42 (31.6)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages of total respondents in that category.

helped in saving for the dowry for their daughter's marriage. We, therefore, asked the respondents as to what was the reason that induced them to take up vocational training. Table V.1 highlights factors motivating our respondents to take up vocational training. We find that the proportion of respondents motivated and undergoing training to total respondents was 31.6 per cent. The highest percentage is in Local body/private sector i.e. 54.0 per cent who said that they were motivated to take up vocational training. The most frequently mentioned factors were 'desire to pursue

a job' (15.0 per cent), 'personality development' (4.5 per cent) and 'academic interest' (4.5 per cent). Our respondents are found to be more self-motivated in taking up vocational training. Only one respondent reported 'parental pressure' as a motivational factor which corroborates the traditional belief that females are generally not encouraged to take up training. In few cases i.e., under 'other factors' death of father and four cases of utilising contacts were put forth as the inducement for taking up vocational training. Three respondents of private sector stated to have taken up training as it was a 'status symbol'. Table shows that for private sector/local body respondents 'desire to pursue a job' was highly motivating factor i.e. job preference is more marked in this category.

V.1.2 Factors Motivating Respondents to Enter the

Workforce : The respectability of female employment, provided it be 'suitable' has increased over past few decades. It is generally asserted that women seek employment because they are forced by 'economic need'. For different class levels, the perception of economic need is vitally different i.e. motivations to work are different for women of different social economic background (Epstein, 1971). It has been observed that where income of the husband is insufficient to provide basic amenities of life, the wife's earnings are

strictly due to economic reasons and as the family income increases the role of non-economic reasons increases (Dhingra, 1972). In higher income brackets where rising inflationary pressures are eroding the value of money, the wife's pay packet ensures a safe and reasonable margin of earning and enables to raise the standard of living and self-fulfilment as has been observed by Srivastava's study (1978) of educated married women workers in Chandigarh and Mathur's (1992) study of women in Jaipur city. Committee on the Status of Women in India (1974) has observed that education, mass media, new economic structure, politicisation and demographic pressure have extended legitimacy to several new roles for women. Thus, educated Indian women are getting into jobs not only out of sheer economic necessity but also due to various other social psycho-situational factors and motivations. Promotion of education among women has created a pool of eligible worker, increasing awareness that family economy based on one income is inadequate, rising cost of living, high cost of children's education, concern for future security have all led to the acceptance by husbands and parents of women's employment. The transition of pattern of family from joint family with gender and age based hierarchy to nuclear family with emphasis on husband-wife relationship has changed attitude towards women's employment.

Table V.2 : Distribution of Respondents by Factors
Motivating Them to Take a Job

(Nos.)

Reasons	Rank According to Reason					Total	Weighted Score
	=====						
	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5		
To Supplement family income	56 (42.1)	16 (12.0)	24 (18.0)	13 (9.7)	13 (9.7)	122 (91.7)	455 (91.0)
To have better standard of living	20 (15.0)	37 (27.8)	29 (21.8)	21 (15.8)	5 (3.7)	112 (84.2)	382 (76.4)
To use educational qualification	41 (30.8)	32 (24.1)	28 (21.0)	12 (9.0)	2 (1.5)	115 (86.4)	443 (88.6)
To use spare time	11 (8.3)	25 (18.7)	19 (14.3)	36 (27.1)	18 (13.5)	109 (81.9)	302 (60.4)
To have social interaction	3 (2.2)	4 (3.0)	11 (8.3)	21 (15.8)	62 (46.6)	101 (75.9)	168 (33.6)
To be economically independent	2 (1.5)	19 (14.3)	22 (16.5)	30 (22.5)	33 (24.8)	106 (79.7)	246 (49.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.

In our study, we observe that 91.7 per cent mentioned 'need to supplement family income' as a motivating factor and in 42.1 per cent of cases it was mentioned as the most important factor motivating our respondents (Table V.2). This finding strongly supports the hypothesis that economic need is the main factor influencing female participation in work. Various other studies too, indicate that economic necessity is one of the strong motives behind the workforce of the

women thus corroborating our finding (Arora, Bhattacharya & others, 1963; Brown, 1964; Beynon and Blackurn, 1972; Cumison, 1966; Chakraborty, 1977; Dhingra, 1972; Kapur, 1974; Kala Rani, 1976; Khanna and Varghese, 1978). 86.4 per cent of the respondents gave 'utilisation of educational qualification' as the inducement to join their respective jobs and 30.8 per cent gave this factor first position among the ranking schedule, thus corroborating our above hypothesis. Almost 80.0 per cent of the respondents have reported that they took up job to be economically independent, but only 1.5 per cent rank it first. 8.3 per cent of the respondents ranked the category 'to use spare time' as the primary motive for being in the workforce. 'To have social interaction' was the prime motive behind 2.2 per cent respondents.

Further, to highlight the findings more sharply weighted score has been calculated. Weighted score has been calculated by giving different weights to different priorities and finally summing up i.e., for e.g. first priority was assigned the weight of five followed by second priority with weight of six and so on. Then we have multiplied the number of respondents with first priority with the assigned weight and result obtained of each priorities are summed up for each variable. It shows that leading factor of motivation is 'to supplement family income' (91.0 per cent) followed by

'to use educational qualification (88.6 per cent), 'to have better standard of living' (76.4 per cent). A study of women workers of Britain observes that only one-third of women work for dire economic need, others work to improve their standard of living and for self-fulfilment (Zweig, 1952).

V.1.3 Influence Over the Choice of Career : The choice of a career is not always an independent action of the individual but to some extent it is influenced by other persons as well. To enquire into the influence in the choice of the occupational career, the respondents were asked to whom they have emulated in their career choice. It is found that above 60 per cent of the respondents are new entrants to the workforce and therefore have been self-motivated to join the occupation. Table V.3 shows that 38.3 per cent of respondents have emulated someone in their family while choosing a career. About half of these respondents have emulated their father and 3.0 per cent have claimed the influence of their mother. There were 9.0 per cent respondents who were influenced by their husbands and 4.5 per cent of them were influenced by their friends and close relatives. Thus, we conclude that a considerable per cent of respondents were very assertive and have exercised their independent will in choosing a career.

Table V.3 : Distribution of Respondents Having Emulated Someone in Their Family in Choice of Profession

(Nos.)

Category	Father	Mother	Bro- ther	Sis- ter	Hus- band	Any- other	Total
Central Govt. Em- ployee	9 (19.6)	2 (4.3)	-	-	3 (6.5)	2 (4.3)	16 (34.7)
State Govt. Em- ployee	12 (24.0)	2 (4.0)	-	2 (4.0)	6 (12.0)	4 (8.0)	26 (52.0)
Private Sector Employee	5 (13.5)	-	1 (2.7)	-	3 (8.1)	-	9 (24.3)
Total Employee	26 (19.5)	4 (3.0)	1 (0.7)	2 (1.5)	12 (9.0)	6 (4.5)	51 (38.3)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

V.1.4 Factors Affecting Job Preferences : Table V.4 highlights that bright career prospects, level of earnings, non-transferability, are the most frequently stressed factors in giving respondent's preferences. 89.5 per cent of our respondents highlighted bright career prospects as a factor and in 45.1 per cent of cases it was given the first priority in a seven point priority scale. 86.5 per cent of the respondents mentioned non-transferability as the prime factor and 13.5 per cent assigned it as the most important factor guiding the job preferences. Convenient timings and

Table V.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Affecting Job Preferences

(Nos.)

Factors Affecting Job Preferences	Priorities							Total Weighted Score	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Convenient timings	22 (16.5)	19 (14.3)	20 (15.0)	19 (14.3)	17 (12.8)	13 (9.7)	4 (3.0)	114 (85.7)	525 (75.0)
Non- transferability	18 (13.5)	30 (22.5)	24 (10.5)	15 (11.3)	15 (11.1)	12 (9.0)	11 (8.3)	115 (86.5)	516 (73.7)
Less-need of travelling	4 (3.0)	5 (3.7)	7 (5.3)	7 (5.3)	21 (0.8)	9 (0.8)	22 (11.5)	75 (56.3)	215 (30.7)
Suitable distance from home	5 (3.7)	8 (6.0)	20 (15.0)	28 (21.0)	19 (14.3)	21 (15.8)	13 (9.7)	114 (85.7)	407 (58.1)
Level of earnings	15 (11.3)	28 (21.1)	22 (16.5)	18 (13.5)	19 (14.3)	12 (9.0)	4 (3.0)	118 (88.7)	540 (77.1)
Bright career prospects	60 (45.1)	16 (12.0)	16 (12.0)	8 (6.0)	10 (7.5)	4 (3.0)	5 (3.7)	119 (89.5)	679 (97.0)
Should be approved by husband/father	7 (5.3)	8 (6.0)	9 (6.8)	8 (6.0)	6 (4.5)	4 (3.0)	6 (4.5)	38 (28.6)	278 (39.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentage to total respondents.

suitable distance from home to office attracted 85.7 per cent of the respondents and 16.5 and 3.7 per cent gave first preference to these factors in selection of job. Though 28.6 per cent of the respondent felt that the job should be approved by husband/father but other factors preceeded this in their priority list and only 5.3 per cent accorded this as the most important variable in guiding job preference.

Using weighted score as an indicator of factors guiding job preferences we find that results become more pronounced. Weighted score has been calculated by giving different weights to different priorities and finally summing up i.e. for e.g. first rank was assigned the weight of seven followed by second rank with the weight of six and so on for each ranks. Weighted score for job with 'bright career prospects' is 97.0 per cent followed by 'level of earnings' (77.0 per cent), 'convenient timings' (75.0 per cent) and 'non-transferability' (73.7 per cent), 58.0 per cent is the weighted score of the variable 'suitability of distance from home to office'. The approval of father/husband scores 39.7 and 30.0 per cent is the score for jobs in which less need of travelling is involved. Thus, we find that our hypothesis is strongly corroborated that the bright career prospects, level of earnings and non-transferability are the main factors guiding our respondents' job preference.

V.1.5 Attitude Towards Certain Jobs : While working has acquired sufficient legitimacy for "stay at homes" to verbalise a position contrary to that of family members, acting against the expressed wishes of the family has not. The vast majority of respondent's family positively evaluate employment in preference to staying at home. Table V.5 throws light on this issue. It is observed that Government jobs were preferred by

Table V.5 : Distribution of Respondents by Household Members in Favour/Not in Favour of Certain Job Types

(Nos.)			
Job Type	In favour	Not in favour	Total
1. Teaching	110 (82.7)	23 (17.3)	133 (100.0)
2. Clerical/ Secretarial	107 (80.5)	26 (19.5)	133 (100.0)
3. Administrative	104 (78.2)	29 (21.8)	133 (100.0)
4. Jobs in business companies	53 (39.8)	80 (60.2)	133 (100.0)
5. Government jobs	126 (94.7)	7 (5.3)	133 (100.0)
6. Travelling jobs	40 (3.0)	129 (96.9)	133 (100.0)
7. Sales job	14 (10.5)	119 (89.5)	133 (100.0)
8. Jobs in male domina- ted organisation	61 (45.9)	72 (54.1)	133 (100.0)
9. Full-time jobs	83 (62.4)	50 (37.59)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

94.7 per cent of the families of respondents followed by teaching (82.7 per cent), clerical jobs (80.4 per cent) and administrative jobs (78.2 per cent). Jobs in business companies, male dominated organisations and full-time jobs attracted the favour of 39.8, 45.8 and

62.4 per cent of respondent household members. Travelling and sales jobs mostly assigned the title of 'male job' were considered to be unsuitable by the family members. Only 4 respondent's families supported travelling jobs and 14 reported to be in favour of sales job. As domestic chores also form the part of women's life, hence full time jobs attracted the favour of 62.4 per cent of family members.

V.2 Job History

This section throws light on the respondents work history in terms of age at joining work, duration of service, number of job changes, method of recruitment and interruptions in career if any.

V.2.1 Age At Joining Work : The average age at joining work for our sample is 22.9 years as shown in Table V.6. Clerical cadre jobs require a fairly high educational background and some specialised skills, though training requirements are not so rigorous. The highest average age at entry was for Central government employees (23.4 years). Our sample show that 52.6 per cent of respondents joined service before the age of 23 years either, after completing graduation and some vocational training or post-graduation. This further reflects that these younger females are more career oriented. Girls who had joined job after father's death

Table V.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Age at Joining Work

(Nos.)

	Below 21	21-23	23-25	25-27	27-29	29 & Above	Total	Average Age at Entry (Years)
Central Govt.	13 (28.3)	13 (28.3)	6 (13.0)	6 (13.0)	2 (4.3)	6 (13.0)	46 (100.0)	23.4
State Govt.	10 (20.0)	13 (26.0)	9 (18.0)	2 (4.0)	3 (6.0)	13 (26.0)	50 (100.0)	22.6
Private Sector	14 (37.8)	7 (18.9)	7 (18.9)	4 (10.8)	1 (2.7)	4 (10.8)	37 (100.0)	22.7
Total	37 (27.8)	33 (24.8)	22 (16.5)	12 (9.0)	6 (4.5)	23 (17.3)	133 (100.0)	22.9

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

due to economic compulsion could not undergo any vocational training. Another striking age group which attracts our attention is 29 and above category. Most of these respondents were in jobs due to the death of their husbands or due to delay in marriage.

V.2.2 Length of Service : Length of service is an important variable that determines the total period since when women has come out of the folds of tradition and joined the workforce. Various studies have

Table V.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Duration of Service In Years

(Nos.)

	Below 5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30	30 & Above	Total	Average Duration of Service
Central Govt.	13 (28.3)	20 (43.5)	7 (15.2)	2 (4.3)	2 (4.3)	1 (2.2)	1 (2.2)	46 (100.0)	8.4
State Govt.	12 (24.0)	13 (26.0)	13 (26.0)	5 (10.0)	4 (8.0)	2 (4.0)	1 (2.0)	50 (100.0)	9.3
Private Sector	23 (62.2)	11 (29.7)	3 (8.1)	-	-	-	-	37 (100.0)	4.8
Total	48 (36.1)	44 (33.1)	23 (17.3)	7 (5.3)	6 (4.5)	3 (2.2)	2 (1.5)	133 (100.0)	7.6

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

established this fact. Jain's (1988) study on women workers of four major cities of Uttar Pradesh highlights the fact that 'many women had been in jobs for a pretty long time'. Talwar's (1984) study covering Jodhpur city observes average service period of 8.3 years whereas Misra's (1990) study of professional women workers of Lucknow city establishes 10.8 years as the average length of service. Our sample has 7.6 years as the average duration of service which is lower than above findings of Misra (Table V.7). The longest duration of service was in the case of State government respondents

(9.3 years) followed by Central government employees (8.4 years), thus, highlighting the fact that public sector/ government jobs have been attracting women for a relatively longer period. Now, even private sector is attracting females as shown by the lower average length of service (4.8 years). The number of respondents in the workforce for more than 15 years is very low (about 15 per cent). It is reaffirmed by the fact that 36.1 per cent of the respondents have started working only in past five years and 33.1 per cent have worked since last ten years. Only 17.3 per cent of the respondents have been in the labour force in 10-15 years category, signifying that female employment has gained wider acceptance since the seventies. No respondent of private sector was found to be in service for more than 15 years and 62.2 per cent joined services during last 5 years. We observe that three-fourths of the respondents in government jobs are in their respective jobs for less than 15 years. The percentage of respondents in these jobs is highest in 5-10 years category i.e., 43.5 per cent and 26.0 per cent for Central and State governments respectively. We, thus, observe that duration of service for public sector employees is longer than that for the private sector jobs.

V.2.3 Job Changes and Reason for Them : The data in Table V.8 shows the number of job changes by the respondents. It shows that a cvery large percentage

Table V.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Job Changes

(Nos.)

Category	No Change	One Change	Two Changes	Three or More Changes	Total
Central Govt.	38 (82.6)	6 (13.0)	2 (4.3)	—	46 (100.0)
State Govt.	44 (88.0)	4 (8.0)	2 (4.0)	—	50 (100.0)
Private Sector	28 (75.7)	6 (16.2)	1 (2.7)	2 (5.4)	37 (100.0)
Total	110 (82.7)	16 (12.0)	5 (3.7)	2 (1.5)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

(82.7 per cent) of our respondents had not indulged in switching over from one job to another. Only 12.0 per cent of the respondents had shown the tendency of hopping from one job to another and 3.7 per cent indulged in two changes. Only 1.5 per cent (2 respondents and that too of private sector) had changed their service three or more times. The highest frequency of switching over from one job to another was observed in the case of private sector respondents (16.2 per cent), followed by Central government respondents (13.0 per cent) and State government employees (8.0 per cent). Percentage of respondents having changed their

job twice were almost negligible in all the categories, thus implying that workforce stability does exist in the labour market for secretarial workers. We find that the change of job is more prominent in private sector as working conditions are not favourable due to lack of social security benefits and pension facility etc., 5.4 per cent of private respondents changed their jobs three or more times.

Amongst different reasons (Table V.9) offered by respondents for job changes 'better prospects' was the main reason for 63.1 per cent of respondents in first job change, 33.3 per cent of respondents in second job change and 42.8 per cent of respondents in more than three job changes. Three respondents (33.33 per cent) in second job change and 2 respondents (28.6 per cent) in more than three changes reported transfer of spouse as the cause of their job changes. No respondent reported conflict with superiors as the reason for job change. Five respondents in first job change and 2 each in second and three plus changes of job gave promotion as the reason for changing jobs. Amongst 2 respondents of first job change under other reason category, one respondent changed her job due to change of city by her parents and the other one reported marriage as the cause of her changing job. One respondent reported other reasons for second job change as parents disapproval of that job due to lack of congenial environment for work.

Table V.9 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons Assigned for Job Changes (Nos.)

No. of Changes	Reasons				Total
	Better Prospects	Transfer of Spouse	Promotion	Other	
One Change	12 (63.1)	-	5 (26.3)	2 (10.5)	19 (100.0)
Two Changes	3 (33.3)	3 (33.3)	2 (22.2)	1 (11.1)	9 (100.0)
Three and More Changes	3 (42.8)	2 (28.6)	2 (28.6)	-	7 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Upward occupational mobility is a rare phenomenon. Most of the changes in our respondent's career are due to the change of work place rather than the nature of work. Spatial, rather than vertical mobility is predominant in our study. Better prospects, permanency of employment, high salary, and dignified jobs had attracted our respondents to change their previous employment.

V.2.4 : Methods of Recruitment : Various studies have analysed the methods of recruitment for women workers and the observations vary depending upon the category of workers studied. Jain's (1988) study of middle class women workers concludes that majority (45.0 per cent) of respondents got their job by their own ability and

effort, whereas, Srivastava's (1978) study of industrial and non-industrial married women workers shows that they got job with the help of friends and relatives. Ranade and Ramchandran's (1970) study of women workers of Bombay observed that newspapers were the media through which they got the information regarding employment.

Methods of recruitment of secretarial workers is shown in Table V.10. From the table, we observe that for 42 per cent of our respondents, Employment Exchanges are the major source of information and recruitment. The role of advertisements in circulating information regarding employment holds good for 25.6 per cent of the respondents. 15.7 per cent respondents claim getting employment either due to the death of husband or father and only 12.0 per cent respondents turned to friends and relatives for securing jobs. A few respondents (4.5 per cent) have reported other methods of recruitment. A relatively large proportion of Central government (60.9 per cent) and State government (34.0 per cent) respondents got job through Employment Exchange. 37.8 per cent of private sector respondents secured jobs through advertisements. The incidence of respondents securing a job after husband's/father's death is higher in the case of State government whereas this method of recruitment doesn't hold good in private sector. Friends and relatives play a crucial role in achieving a job for private sector respondents (29.7 per cent).

Table V.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to Method of Recruitment

(Nos.).

Religion	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Employment Exchange	28 (60.9)	17 (34.0)	11 (29.7)	56 (42.1)
Advertisement	10 (21.7)	10 (20.0)	14 (37.8)	34 (25.6)
Friends/ Relatives	-	5 (10.0)	11 (29.7)	16 (12.0)
After Death of Husband/Father	5 (10.8)	16 (32.0)	-	21 (15.7)
Other Methods	3 (6.5)	2 (4.0)	1 (2.7)	6 (4.5)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

V.3 Conditions of Work

To have a clear understanding of secretarial workers regarding their commitment to the work it is important to explore the conditions of their work, the working hours and situation of work - all go a long way in determining their level of job satisfaction as well as the nature and extent of participation in their family and social circle. For appropriate performance

of a role it requires a particular setting (Nadel, 1957), a setting which is congenial and helpful and facilitates the incumbent to perform her role efficiently and effectively. Meyer and Scott argue that the nature of an organisation is inextricably linked to both its physical and symbolic environment (Meyer & Scott, 1983). It thus becomes essential to understand and explore the conditions of work under which these secretarial workers work before taking up their working relationship with their subordinates, colleagues and bosses. As different types of organisations have different goals and procedures of work, the conditions of work in government and semi-government departments would differ from private organisations.

V.3.1 Number of Employees in Respondents Organisation and Department : We observe from Table V.11 that the average number of employees in the respondents organisation is 561, which shows that the respondents work in big organisations. This is due to the fact that in our study big organisations such as U.P. secretariat, UPSEB, Chief Post Master General, CDRI, are also included. Further, the table reveals that 83.6 per cent of the total workers in the organisations are males and only 16.4 per cent are females. This shows that though females have entered the clerical cadres but still their proportion is low as compared to males. We observe that female workers proportion to total workers

Table V.11 : Average Number of Employee in the Organisation by Sex
(Nos.)

Category	Male	Female	Total
Central Government Employees	609 (85.6)	102 (14.3)	711 (100.0)
State Government Employees	576 (78.6)	156 (21.3)	732 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	224 (93.3)	16 (6.7)	240 (100.0)
Total Employees	469 (83.6)	85 (16.4)	561 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

is lowest in the private sector (6.7 per cent) indicating that though this sector has started attracting females recently, but still frequency of females getting into this sector is low.

Almost similar picture emerges from Table V.12 when we look into the distribution pattern of employees in respondents departments. We observe that here also 84.5 per cent of total employees are male workers and only 15.5 per cent are female workers. We find that our respondents are working in male dominated work environment.

Table V.12 : Average Number of Employees in Respondents' Department by Sex

(Nos.)			
Category	Males	Females	Total
Central Government Employees	146 (80.2)	36 (19.8)	182 (100.0)
State Government Employees	132 (92.3)	11 (7.7)	143 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	35 (85.4)	6 (14.6)	41 (100.0)
Total Employees	98 (84.5)	18 (15.5)	116 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

V.3.2 Nature of Work : Permanency of tenure of job is always desired by men and women. In our sample 75.9 per cent of respondents were in a permanent job and the rest were in a temporary or a casual job. Majority of respondents in, private sector (56.7 per cent) were working in temporary capacity. Respondents working in part-time capacity were only in private sector (Table V.13).

V.3.3 Working Hours : From Table V.14 it is observed that all respondents of government sector had fixed and regular hours of work, where hours of work are

Table V.13 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Nature of Work

Nature of Work	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
<u>Part-time</u>				
Permanent	—	—	—	—
Temporary	—	—	2 (5.4)	2 (1.5)
<u>Full-time</u>				
Permanent	39 (84.8)	48 (96.0)	14 (37.8)	101 (75.9)
Temporary	7 (15.2)	2 (4.0)	21 (56.7)	30 (22.5)
<u>Total</u>				
Permanent	39 (84.8)	48 (96.0)	14 (37.8)	101 (75.9)
Temporary	7 (15.2)	2 (4.0)	23 (59.5)	32 (24.1)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

officially fixed. No worker reported indefinite hours of work. Only 6 respondents of private sector had reported late evening duties as well, besides their regular schedule.

Table V.14 : Distribution of Respondents According to Working Hours

(Nos.)

Category	Fixed	Indefinite	Late eve- ning Duties	Total
Central Government Employees	46 (100.0)	—	—	46 (100.0)
State Government Employees	50 (100.0)	—	—	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	31 (83.8)	—	6 (16.2)	37 (100.0)
Total Employees	127 (95.5)	—	6 (4.5)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Turnings to Table V.15 we observe that 85.7 per cent of the respondents work for 5-8 hours per day. All respondents of Central and State government organisations work for 5-8 hours daily and 48.6 per cent of private sector employees work 5-8 hours. 45.9 per cent of private sector respondents work more i.e., 8-11 hours. We observe that working hours are more in the private sector along with late evening duties. This can also be a cause of more job change over in this sector as established earlier. No respondent reported working more than 11 hours per day whether in public or private sector. Two respondents from private sector claimed

Table V.15 : Distribution of Respondents
According to Hours of Work

(Nos.)

Category	Less than 5 Hrs.	5 - 8 Hrs.	8 - 11 Hrs.	Total
Central Govt. Employees	-	46 (100.0)	-	46 (100.0)
State Govt. Employees	-	50 (100.0)	-	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Estt. Employees	2 (5.4)	18 (48.6)	17 (45.9)	37 (100.0)
Total Employees	2 (1.5)	114 (85.7)	17 (12.8)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

working less than 5 hours daily and belonged to a private teaching establishment and that too in part-time capacity.

V.3.4 Types of Allowances and Benefits Availed by the Respondents : It is seen from the Table V.16 that various benefits and allowances are availed by our respondents. 68.4 per cent of the respondents get house rent allowance, 66.2 per cent get travelling allowances, 97.7 per cent get bonus, 49.6 per cent get leave travel concession and 45.1 per cent get medical benefits. All the respondents from Central and State government avail

Table V.16 : Distribution of Respondents According to Different Types of Allowances and Facilities Paid to Them

(Nos.)

Allowance & Facilities	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Leave Travel Allowance	43 (93.5)	23 (46.0)	—	66 (49.6)
Medical Allowance	38 (82.6)	17 (34.0)	5 (10.0)	60 (45.1)
Travel Allowance	23 (93.5)	15 (90.0)	—	88 (66.2)
House Rent Allowance	43 (93.5)	45 (90.0)	—	91 (68.4)
Bonus	38 (82.6)	44 (88.0)	24 (48.0)	106 (79.7)
City Compensatory Allowance	43 (93.5)	23 (46.0)	—	66 (49.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

the facility of maternity leave with pay but in the case of private sector no clear picture emerges. Most of the respondents from private sector were not clear about various allowances they avail though 48.0 per cent claimed getting bonus and 10.0 per cent said that they get medical allowances as well. In private sector only few respondents were getting pay on scale basis otherwise most of them were working on consolidated salary.

93.5 per cent of respondents from Central government get leave travel concession, travelling allowance, house rent allowance, city compensatory allowance and 82.6 per cent get bonus and medical allowances. In State government only 34.0 per cent get medical allowance in cash and rest of the respondents were getting medical benefits through State government hospitals. Many respondents were unaware about the facilities they were getting through their establishment. When asked about break-up of pay mostly the answer received were unsatisfactory. Leave travel concession was availed by the respondents of Central as well as State government establishments.

Our survey reveals that the respondents received retirement benefits as well (Table V.17). Majority of respondents (80.5 per cent) get provident fund and those who were not getting this facility either because they are on probation or on daily wages or working on consolidated salary. 66.2 per cent get pension and retirement gratuity. Almost all (i.e., above 90.0 per cent) of Central and State government respondents reported receiving these retirement benefits. Besides this there is one more facility known as compensation after death during service period i.e., one member of the family gets job in government establishment. In private sector there is no facility of retirement gratuity and pension.

Table V.17 : Distribution of Respondents According to Retirement Benefits Provided to Them

(Nos.)

Retirements Benefits	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Provident Fund	43 (93.5)	40 (80.0)	24 (64.8)	107 (80.5)
Retirement Gratuity	43 (93.5)	45 (90.0)	—	88 (66.2)
Pension	43 (93.5)	45 (90.0)	—	88 (66.2)
Other Benefits	2 (4.3)	—	8 (21.6)	10 (7.5)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

V.3.5 Number of Leaves Availed by the Respondents : It is a known fact that a major cause of employer's bias against women workers is that women take too many leaves. Various studies corroborate this fact (Papola, 1986; Jain, 1988). Our survey shows that the average days of leaves per respondent in the past year is 33 (Table V.18) which does not indicate a high rate of absenteeism. The average days of leave per respondent was relatively lower for private sector employees, the reason being that in private sector security of job is not much, hence employees avoid taking leaves. In

Table V.18 : Average Number of Leaves Availed by the Respondents in the Past Year

(in days)

Category	Casual Leave	Medical Leave	Long Leave	Leave Without Pay	Total Days of Leave Per Respondent
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Central Government

No. of Employee Taking Leave	45 (97.8)	14 (30.4)	16 (34.8)
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Average Days of Leave	11	65	40	—	44
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State Government

No. of Employee Taking Leave	50 (100.0)	16 (32.0)	1 (2.0)
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Average Days of Leave	12	28	120	—	23
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Private Sector

No. of Employee Taking Leave	35 (94.6)	29 (78.4)	—	1 (2.7)
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Average Days of Leave	11	9	—	5	18
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Contd.../-

Table V.18 contd.

TotalNo. of
Employee

Taking	130	59	17	1
Leave	(97.7)	(44.4)	(12.8)	(0.7)

Average
Days of
Leave

11	34	60	5	33
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Note : (1) Averages have been calculated according to total respondents availing of that particular leave.

(3) Figures in Parentheses denote proportion of respondents availing leaves to total respondents.

government jobs we find that average days of leave per respondent is high (44 days and 23 days for Central and State government respectively).

The table shows that 97.7 per cent of the respondents have availed their casual leave (an average of 11 days). Casual leave is availed by 94.6 per cent of private sector respondents as well. 12.8 per cent of respondents availed on average 60 days of long leave, however, private sector respondents did not take any long leave in the past year. An average of 34 days of medical leave was taken by 44.4 per cent of the respondents. The highest average number of days was for Central government (65 days) taken by 14 respondents,

followed by State government (28 days) taken by 16 respondents and private sector (9 days) taken by 29 respondents. We thus, find that respondents did not take too many leaves as is usually believed for female workers.

V.3.6 Distance to Place of Work and Mode of Conveyance :
Efficiency and the successful performance of the occupational role by employees is affected by the amount stress caused due to the distance between their home and place of work. In the case of females it is of much importance, as a lot of their time is spent on the daily

Table V.19 : Distribution of Respondents According to Distance From Home to Office
(Nos.)

Category	Less than 3 Kms.	3 - 6 Kms.	6 - 9 Kms.	9 - 12 Kms.	More than 12 Kms.	Total
Central Govt. Employees	5 (10.8)	11 (23.9)	14 (30.4)	8 (17.4)	8 (17.4)	46 (100.0)
State Govt. Employees	10 (20.0)	15 (30.0)	17 (34.0)	4 (8.0)	4 (8.0)	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	5 (13.5)	13 (35.1)	14 (37.8)	3 (8.1)	2 (5.4)	37 (100.0)
Total Employees	20 (15.0)	39 (29.3)	45 (33.8)	15 (11.3)	14 (10.5)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

household chores. Table V.19 throws light on the proximity of home to office. It shows that 15.0 per cent of our respondents had their workplace either in close vicinity or within a distance of 3 kms. About 30.0 per cent of the respondents had to travel from 3 kms. to 6 kms. to reach their place of work. One-third respondents travel a distance of 6 kms. every day. We find that the stress caused by distance is more in the case of Central government respondents as relatively higher proportion of respondents (more than 60.0 per cent) travel a distance of more than 6 kms.

We observe that private sector respondents under go more stress as more than half of the respondents travel more than 6 kms. to attend their duties along with long working hours (8-11 hours). We thus find proximity of workplace to home is eagerly wanted but distance does not deter our respondents from taking-up jobs as the number of respondents travel for more than 12 kms. as well.

Table V.20 shows that a larger proportion (43.6 per cent) of respondents took only 20-40 minutes to reach their office and 18.8 per cent of the respondents took less than 20 minutes to reach their workplace as a relatively greater proportion of State government and private sector respondents stay close (within 6 kms.) to their workplace. A significantly larger proportion of

Central government (45.7 per cent) respondents took more than 40 minutes to reach office which is in consonance with the fact (Table V.20) that a relatively larger proportion of them stay further away from their office place. 32.6 per cent of the respondents from Central government, about half of the respondents from State government and private sector took 20-40 minutes to reach office. Therefore, time taken to cover the distance between home and workplace by our respondents is less for State government and private sector and high for Central government respondents.

Table V.20 : Distribution of Respondents According to Time Taken to Reach Office
(Nos.)

Category	Less than 20 min.	20 - 40 minutes	40 - 60 minutes	60 minutes and more min.	Total
Central Government Employees	10 (21.7)	15 (32.6)	12 (26.1)	9 (19.6)	46 (100.0)
State Government Employees	7 (14.0)	25 (50.0)	13 (26.0)	5 (10.0)	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	8 (21.6)	18 (48.6)	8 (21.6)	3 (8.1)	37 (100.0)
Total	25 (18.8)	58 (43.6)	33 (24.8)	17 (12.8)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

For more accurate analysis a look at Table V.21 in which the mode of travel is shown, is essential. observe that the most popular mode of conveyance for the respondents is rickshaw (31.6 per cent) followed by scooter (24.8 per cent), tempo (22.6 per cent) and bus (12.0 per cent). Such a low percentage of travelling shown by bus reflects that public utilities are not

Table V.21 : Distribution of Respondents According to Mode of Transport

(Nos.)

Mode of Transport	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Moped	2 (4.3)	4 (8.0)	-	6 (4.5)
Scooter	17 (36.9)	9 (18.0)	7 (18.9)	33 (24.8)
Rickshaw	10 (21.7)	18 (36.0)	14 (37.8)	42 (31.6)
Bus	6 (13.0)	8 (16.0)	2 (5.4)	16 (12.0)
Tempo	9 (19.6)	10 (20.0)	11 (29.7)	30 (22.6)
Car	1 (2.2)	-	-	1 (0.7)
Walking	1 (2.2)	1 (2.0)	3 (8.1)	5 (3.7)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

fully developed in the city. A relatively larger proportion of Central government respondents travel by scooter which is in consonance with the fact that they are the better off class as observed in Chapter IV. As more of State government and private sector respondents stay within 6 kms. hence large proportion of them (36.0 and 37.8 per cent in State government and private sector respectively) travel by rickshaw and (20.0 and 29.7 per cent in State government and private sector respectively) by tempo. Only one respondent of Central government travels by car. Young respondents of Central government (2 respondents) and State governments (4 respondents) are seen travelling by their own moped. A relatively larger proportion of government employees utilise public transport facilities. The proportion of respondents utilising public transport is low also because they don't have too much time to wait and seek such conveyance as they have to go through tight schedule of reaching workplace on time and thereafter, awaiting domestic responsibilities. A few respondents replied that they do not stick to one mode of travel and change their conveyance as and when required taking time factor into consideration.

V.4 Trade Union Activities

In spite of the general dearth of sociological literature relating to white-collar workers there are

few studies of the growth of white-collar unionism in Western countries (Bain, 1970). There has been practice of male-dominated trade unions to leave clerical women as one of the least unionised of the major categories of workers (Seidman, 1978). Past efforts to organise clerical workers have been inadequate. Unions, management and others have assumed that women are difficult to organise because of their involvement in domestic chores, being absent most of the time and because they themselves are not interested. McNally's (1979) study of U.K. states that 'there are a number of reasons why most of them would not attempt to resolve their grievances through organised industrial action'. Studies in the West show that large proportion of employed women work in non-unionised professions and female membership in unions is low (Wallace, 1982).

The changing conditions of women tend to make women prone for organising though still in small numbers. Rijk's (1984) study of women at work in Holland States "Dutch women are beginning to organise themselves into pressure groups in order to improve their position in the labour market and to fight for equal rights". Scriven's (1989) study of women at work in Sweden shows that women are poorly represented in unions, they have crept into the lower positions but very rarely make it to the top. Whilst making up 30-46 per cent of the members in 1976, less than 20 per cent of members of

union boards were women and less than 10 per cent made it to chairman level.

V.4.1 Respondent's Membership in Unions : It is observed that all the public sector organisations covered in the survey had unions, but the case was opposite in private sector, where very few organisations reported having any union. It is seen in Table V.22 that 54.8 per cent of the respondents reported being members of union. This level of membership of clerical workers in our study is higher as compared to Misra's (1990) findings for professional women workers of Lucknow city (41.2 per cent). It is observed that 60-70 per cent of our respondents in public sector i.e., Central and State government undertakings reported

Table V.22 : Distribution of Respondents According to Membership of any Trade Union of Their Organisation
(Nos.)

Category	Member (Nos.)	Percent
Central Government Employees	32	69.5
State Government Employees	30	60.0
Private (Act) Establi- shment Employees	11	29.7
Total Employees	73	54.8

having membership of different unions of their respective organisation but only 30 per cent respondents of private sector hold membership of union. During the survey it was inquired whether any executive position was held by the respondents but no positive response was received.

V.4.2 Extent of Participation : An important fact that emerges here is that though more than 50 per cent (Table V.23) of our respondents are members of union but 38.3 per cent (Table V.23) of members do not

Table V.23 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Extent of Participation in Union Activities

(Nos.)

Extent of Participation	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
Occa-sionally	3 (9.3)	11 (36.6)	2 (18.2)	16 (21.9)
Usually	9 (28.1)	3 (10.0)	3 (27.3)	15 (20.5)
Regular	9 (28.1)	5 (16.6)	1 (9.1)	15 (20.5)
Not at all	12 (37.5)	11 (36.6)	5 (45.5)	28 (38.3)
Total	32 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	73 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

participate at all in different union activities and meetings. Only 20.5 per cent of the member respondents were very regular in union activities. Nearly 43 per cent showed a casual involvement. 28.1 and 16.6 per cent of members in Central and State government had regular involvement in union activities whereas only one respondent of private sector was regular. 36-38 per cent members of surveyed government establishments were not participating at all in union activities.

An enquiry into the women secretarial workers involvement in protest and demonstrations against unacceptable working conditions or decision affecting work, we observed that 9 regular members of Central government and 17 members (5 regular and 12 casual members) of State government had taken part in protest and strikes. The conclusion drawn is that our respondents are not actively involved in the unions.

V.4.3 Reasons for Lack of Active Participation : For a long time, women are passive, usually accepting the jobs offered to them; unable to protest. Protests by women in the form of strikes, demonstrations etc., are less frequent than those organised by men. Vianello and Siemienka's (1990) study of four countries (Canada, Italy, Poland and Romania) confirms that male respondents protested more often than their female

counterparts. In Poland the number of male blue-collar workers who have protested is twice as large as that of female workers. Also in Romania the proportion of protesting male teachers is 20 per cent higher than protesting women in the same profession. This has often been explained by citing not only the kind of socialisation that is received by women but also women's fear of retaliation by the employers owing to the different opinion that women are less reliant, are mediocre workers and have a higher rate of absenteeism (Vlahello and Siemieniska, 1990).

Reasons for not participating in union activities are shown in Table V.24. The primary reason assigned for lack of active participation by our respondent (43.6 per cent) is that they have no time off from office work. Due to their involvement in domestic chores 18.0 per cent respondents could not stay beyond office hours. 8.3 per cent respondents said that there are very few female members and 6.7 per cent respondents claimed family's disapproval as the reason behind their non-participation. 3.7 per cent respondents felt that joining hands in unionism was useless as the union doesn't take up women's issue, and the union lacks effectiveness in improving remunerations and conditions of work.

Table V.24 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Reason for Lack of Active Participation

(Nos.)

Reasons	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Employees
Can't Stay beyond office hours	10 (21.7)	10 (20.0)	4 (10.8)	24 (48.0)
Family dislikes	1 (2.2)	8 (16.0)	--	9 (6.7)
No time off from office hours	15 (32.6)	38 (76.0)	5 (13.5)	58 (43.6)
There are few female members	5 (10.8)	3 (6.0)	3 (8.1)	11 (8.3)
Union does not take up women's issues	1 (2.2)	3 (6.0)	1 (2.7)	5 (3.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

We observed that a large proportion of State government respondents (76.0 per cent) and Central government respondents (32.6 per cent) were busy in office work and hence cannot spare time for such activities. Private sector employees also responded positively regarding their involvement in work (13.5 per cent) and their inability to stay beyond office hours

(10.8 per cent). Avoidance of conflict forms an integral part of the traditional female role. Women are often not prepared to violate the traditional role and research indicates that they find it difficult to assert themselves in non-supportive company (Wistrand, 1981).

V.5 Conclusion

This chapter deals with the factors motivating respondents to work and their working conditions. We observed that a majority of the respondents took up vocational training with a desire to pursue a job. However, a few of them also reported personality development and academic interest as the motivating factor. We found that self-motivation rather than parental pressure is the predominant motivating factor. Similar picture emerges while discussing factors motivating to take-up a job. Need to supplement family income was stated to be the prime reason for taking up a job. Further, we find that considerable number of respondents were very asertive and exercised their independent will in choosing a career, however, number of respondents emulated their family members especially father in choosing a career.

We observed that level of earnings, bright career prospects and non-transferability were the main factors guiding our respondents in choosing a job - thus,

corroborating our hypotheses regarding job preference. Further, attitude of family members towards certain jobs show that fairly large number of families revealed their preference for jobs in government sector followed by teaching, clerical and administrative jobs.

Analysis of the job history of respondents reflects upon the fact that mostly our respondents had joined their respective jobs soon after completing graduation and some vocational training or after post-graduation. Large number of private sector respondents had entered job below the age of 21 years. Average duration of service is 7-6 years and the respondents in private sector are relatively new entrants thus, reflecting upon the fact that the attitude of middle class families towards female employment in private sector has changed.

We observe that workforce stability exists in the labour market as only one-fifth of the respondents had changed jobs, the reason being better prospects indicating that respondents were aware towards their career. Change over is more pronounced in private sector signifying that unfavourable conditions of work, lack of social security benefits and pension facility, better prospects, permanency in employment and level of income are the reasons that attracted our respondents to move from one job to another. We found that role of Employment Exchange as a source of information and recruitment is well marked by majority of respondents

followed by advertisement. Many respondents are in jobs due to government provision of offering jobs to one member of employees dying during service period.

Conditions of work reflect that our respondents are working in large male dominated work environment. Respondents of public sector hold permanent post whereas, fairly large number of private sector respondents are working in temporary capacity. We observe that in public sector hours of work are fixed officially and hence secretarial workers follow the government rules of working for 5-8 hours per day, whereas, in the private sector working hours are more along with late evening duties being reported by a number of respondents.

Analysis of types of allowances and benefits availed by the respondents shows that the basic allowances like house rent, city compensatory allowance, medical and leave travel allowance are received by all public sector respondents, however, respondents from private sector reported getting consolidated pay accept a few. Contrary to the usual thinking that female workers take leaves very often, our respondents are seen availing casual leave and in a few case long leaves and medical leaves are reported. Rickshaw was reported to be the mode of transport by fairly large number of respondents covering a distance of 3-6 kms. from one side.

A probe into the level of unionisation amongst the secretarial workers show that about half of respondents were members of different unions but their participation in union activity was reported to be almost negligible.

To conclude, we may sum-up that the respondents are basically self-motivated and factors such as career ambition and economic needs propelled them to take up a job. Stability in labour market is established especially in government sector. Conditions of work are unfavourable in private sector, hence we found respondents hoping from one job to another. Respondents neck deep involvement in office and domestic chores restrict them to participate in union activity.

CHAPTER VI

Discrimination and Job Satisfaction

VI.0 Introduction

Since discrimination is an old phenomenon a great deal of speculation regarding its causes and effects has naturally taken place since long. Discrimination is defined by economists to occur when workers of the same productivity receive different treatment or pay or when workers of dissimilar productivity are paid equally. One of the first contributions to the debate was Sidney Webb's study of 1891 The Alleged Differences in the Wages Paid to Men and Women for Similar Work. Considerable literature on sex-discrimination within the neo-classical tradition exists (Alexis, 1973; Krueger, 1963; Thurow, 1969; Stiglitz, 1973; Madden 1973; Bergman, 1974). Although scholars like Edgeworth and Dewey discussed discrimination as early as the 1920's, Becker (1957) played a major role in formulating the neo-classical economic theory of discrimination and saw that one of its application was in the field of sex discrimination. His approach was innovative in that Becker introduced non-pecuniary motives into economic theory and said that discrimination is the result of "taste" and that a price could be put upon this taste and it became equivalent to the wage differential. The neo-classical theory suggests that women earn less than

men because they have lower levels of human capital - mainly education, training and on-the-job experience - and therefore, lower labour productivity (Mincer and Polachek, 1974). Sex discrimination can be measured by the amount of the wage gap between men and women which remains unexplained by male-female differences in human capital - termed as 'statistical discrimination' (Chiplin and Sloane, 1976, p.49).

In analysing discrimination it is important to be clear about its conceptual development and to recognise that discrimination can be of different types and can take different forms. Chiplin and Sloane (1976, p.51) have defined 'pure' labour market discrimination on the part of the employer as 'any form of unequal treatment between male and female employees which does not directly result in cost-minimisation in monetary terms, in relation with labour utilisation'. A large part of discrimination is said to originate in the supply conditions of female labour shaped by social beliefs and attitudes and rather irrational assumptions regarding the role of women in society. At the same time, demand based discrimination practiced by the employer is more important qualitatively to the extent that it tends to resist removal of supply side discrimination and helps in perpetuating overall discrimination against women - thus leading to pre-entry and post-entry discrimination.

The former occurs before the workers has entered the labour force and the most important type of it would appear to be different educational quality and opportunities (Welch, 1975; Ashenfelter and Rees, 1973). The latter is in operation in the work place and could also include the progress in the career of female candidates, attitude of male workers and the general working conditions. In essence, these are similar to the concepts of overt and institutionalised discrimination as given by Marshall (1974). Overt discrimination occurs when worker is not hired or promoted because of sex while institutionalised discrimination is that which operates into social and economic institutions. Employers and trade unions also enforce discrimination due to male conservative attitude and also because females seeking jobs pose a threat to job and income by males.

Theories of labour market segmentation also explain employment discrimination in which women are clustered in few occupations - 'crowding hypothesis' or that labour market are stratified or segmented by institutional barriers. One of the best known theories of refined form is dual labour market theory (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) which distinguishes between primary sector jobs which are relatively good in terms of pay, security and opportunity for advancement, and secondary sector jobs with low pay, low security and little

possibility for advancement. Standing (1978) calls it 'progressive' and 'static' jobs.

With increasing literature on discrimination, awareness regarding its causes and consequences has also increased. The development process encloses within itself the restructuring of the labour force from traditional and subsistence type rural employment to modern organised urban employment. For women, this restructuring has led to a significant change in the socio-cultural framework. As a consequence of this in a number of countries various protective legislations recognising equality of status between men and women have been passed. However, these legislations are not adhered to in totality in Western countries (Davidson and Cooper, 1984; Seidman, 1978; Larwood, Stromberg and Gutek, 1985; Wallace, 1982; Schmid and Weitzel, 1984) as well as in developing countries like India (Hussain and Rao, 1979; Lalitha Devi, 1982; Gangrade and Gathia, 1983; Balasubramanyam, 1985; Ramanna, 1987; Jain 1988; Papola, 1982; Arputhamurthy, 1990).

In this chapter we have tried to probe the extent and nature of sex-discrimination that secretarial women workers face at various levels whether pre-entry or post-entry discrimination. The variables studied include employer's bias, parental attitude towards male and female children, educational difference that the

respondents faced, work environment, attitude of superiors and subordinates, earning differences, etc. The chapter also includes a discussion of job satisfaction of respondents with respect to remuneration, promotion, working hours, decision making process, etc.

VI.1 Discrimination At Home

Often discrimination starts at the time of birth not only in matters of the birth of a female but also in the matters of their rearing, patterning, socialising and educating. In all these respects differential norms and values are followed as compared to the male child. But in recent times, the traditional notion about woman as a daughter is undergoing a change. Women are being educated and the familial restrictions over them are gradually losing their force.

Table VI.1 throws light on this issue. 62.4 per cent of respondents accepted the viewpoint that discrimination is built into our social system. Though education is increasing for females 21.0 per cent of the respondents felt that society restricts females to low education. 24.1 per cent of respondents felt that the needs of male child are more stressed in the present society 23.3 per cent said discrimination in the field of study is also there. 60 per cent of our respondents

Table VI.1 : Distribution of Respondents According to Opinion About Discrimination in Social System

(Nos.)

Opinion	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Employees
Discrimination is built in our system	25 (54.3)	24 (42.0)	27 (72.9)	83 (62.4)
Unfavourable conditions for female education	5 (10.8)	14 (28.0)	9 (24.3)	28 (24.0)
Male child's needs are stressed more	13 (28.3)	12 (24.0)	7 (18.9)	32 (24.1)
Discrimination in the field of study	11 (23.9)	13 (26.0)	9 (24.3)	34 (23.3)
Social attitude of society is discriminatory	25 (54.3)	31 (62.0)	23 (62.2)	79 (59.4)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

said the social attitude of our society is discriminatory.

Table VI.2 highlights major discriminatory issues that our respondents faced within their household. Jain's study (1988), found that 72.5 per cent of middle class educated females under study agreed that their parents had not discriminated against them. Only 13.0 per cent respondents claimed inequality in their parents attitude. In our study 33.8 per cent of the respondents

Table VI.2 : Distribution of Respondents Reporting Discrimination Within Their Family

(Nos.)

Type of Discrimination	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Respondents who claimed discrimination	12 (26.1)	21 (42.0)	12 (34.4)	45 (33.8)
Brother was more pampered	6 (13.0)	6 (12.0)	2 (5.4)	14 (10.5)
Were denied higher education due to family constraints	4 (8.7)	16 (32.0)	5 (13.5)	25 (18.8)
Received training in domestic work according to sex	9 (19.5)	11 (22.0)	4 (10.8)	24 (18.0)
Brother was sent to better school at a distance	—	1 (2.0)	2 (5.4)	3 (2.2)
Being a girl had to share domestic chores	2 (4.3)	2 (4.0)	5 (13.5)	9 (6.7)
Faced cultural restrictions in pursuit of career	6 (13.0)	19 (38.0)	12 (32.4)	37 (27.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

faced discrimination during their childhood which is higher than the figure reported in Jain's study (Status and Role Perception of Middle Class Women). 27.8 per

cent faced cultural restrictions in pursuit of career. 18.8 per cent were denied higher education inspite of their interest due to family constraints. Only 18.0 per cent received training in domestic work according to their sex. However only 10.5 per cent respondents opined that their parents did not give them equal treatment and pampered their brothers more and 2.2 per cent said that their brothers were sent to better school at a distance. 6.7 per cent respondents said that they were destined because of their sex to do domestic chores and their brothers were never asked by their mothers to do anything. A higher proportion of State government respondents opined that they faced cultural restrictions in pursuit of career (38.0 per cent) and were denied higher education due to family constraints (32.0 per cent). 32.4 per cent of private sector respondents said that they too faced cultural restrictions in pursuit of career and 13.5 per cent faced the situation of sharing domestic work due to their sex, 5.4 per cent said that being male their brothers were sent to better school and due to social attitude they were not sent to better school as it was not in close vicinity. The overall conclusions is that the large proportion of women respondents did not face any reporting discriminatory behaviour from their parents. Thus showing changed attitude of our society from traditional thinking towards a more egalitarian thinking.

Table VI.3 : Distribution of Respondents Reporting Employer's Bias in Securing Job (Nos.)

Type of Bias	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Respondents who felt bias	12 (26.1)	6 (12.0)	14 (37.8)	32 (24.0)
<u>Reasons Assigned</u>				
Are neglected due to absenteeism	12 (26.1)	6 (12.0)	14 (37.8)	32 (24.0)
To save extra money- tory expenses	-	1 (2.0)	7 (18.9)	8 (6.0)
Employer's conser- vative attitude	9 (19.6)	2 (4.0)	11 (29.7)	22 (16.5)
Male domination	12 (26.1)	3 (6.0)	12 (32.4)	27 (20.3)
Female create dis- traction in work	-	1 (2.0)	2 (5.4)	3 (2.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

VI.2 Discrimination in the Form of Employer's Bias

Discrimination can also be located at the time of recruitment due to employer's bias. A study by House (1986) in Cyprus shows that the greatest apparent disparity between the sexes arises from the employer's belief of women's greater absenteeism and voluntary turnover and lower supervisory skills. Ahuja-Patel's (1986) study of Sri Lanka shows that women's absenteeism

disrupts the continuity of work. Similarly 24.0 per cent (Table VI.3) of our respondents faced employer's bias due to the notion that women are absent very often. This was more apparent in the case of private sector as 37.8 per cent respondents felt that employers neglect females due to absenteeism. This finding is in consonance with our hypothesis that employer's bias operates due to more absenteeism among female workers. 6.0 per cent of respondents felt that extra facilities are required by women employees in the work place which 'cost more' and hence they are neglected and more so in the private sector. This is in consonance to the finding of House's (1986) that hiring a woman imposes additional cost. 20.3 per cent females reported discrimination due to male domination and 16.5 per cent felt that discrimination is due to employer's conservative attitude. More respondents of private sector reported employer's bias at the time of recruitment as compared to the other two categories. In government sector certain fixed norms have to be observed hence chances of bias restricted than in the private sector where employers have an upper hand and do not have any legal rules laid down to be followed.

Table VI.4 focuses on the major ways in which employer's bias operates. Maximum number of respondents (22.5 per cent) reported that bias was operative i.e. males were given decision making power and males were

Table VI.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Different Ways in Which Employer's Bias Operates (Post-entry)

(Nos.)

Ways in which Employer's Bias Operates	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Preferring males for on-the-job training	12 (26.1)	14 (28.0)	7 (18.9)	33 (24.8)
Males are given decision making power	7 (15.2)	14 (28.0)	9 (24.3)	30 (22.5)
Females are restricted to low income jobs	7 (15.2)	6 (12.0)	1 (2.7)	14 (10.5)
More promotion to males	3 (6.5)	7 (14.0)	3 (8.1)	13 (9.8)
Creating problems in giving maternity leaves/benefits	—	—	6 (16.2)	6 (4.5)
Giving different pay packets	—	—	10 (27.0)	10 (7.5)
Total respondents who faced employer's bias	14 (30.4)	17 (34.0)	11 (29.7)	42 (31.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

preferred for on-the-job training (24.8 Per cent). This implies that in the prevailing socio-cultural framework women are still not offered the equal status in the labour force. 10.5 per cent of respondents reported

that females are relegated to low income jobs and 9.8 per cent felt that males were given more promotions. The bias in the form of different pay packets and creating problems in giving maternity leaves/benefits was prevalent in the case of private sector workers.

The overall conclusion that emerges is that the incidence of respondents reporting employer's bias is relatively higher in the private sector as the phenomenon of women entering into this sector is very recent as compared to the government sector where persistence inequality is very subtle as government legislation prohibits any inequality to prevail.

VI.3 Work Relationship

VI.3.1 Interaction with Male Colleagues : As observed earlier in Chapter V all the three categories of organisations were male-dominated. Hence it was necessary to study the relationship of our respondents with their male colleagues. We observed that 79.7 per cent of the respondents share their room with both males and females, 7.5 per cent share their room with female colleagues, while only 12.8 per cent had their own rooms/cabins (Table VI.5). 19.6 per cent of Central government and 18.9 per cent of private sector respondents did not show their room - they belonged to the category of stenographers and hence had the

Table VI.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to Pattern of Sharing Room

(Nos.)

Pattern of Sharing Room	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Only women	7 (15.2)	2 (4.0)	1 (2.7)	10 (7.5)
Mixed group	30 (65.2)	47 (94.0)	29 (78.4)	106 (79.7)
Single room	9 (19.6)	1 (2.0)	7 (18.9)	17 (12.8)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

privilege of occupying a separate room. Females sharing room with other women were working in female dominated environment i.e. as telephone operators and receptionists.

Table VI.6 examines the level of interaction of our respondents with their male colleagues. It can be observed that 56.4 per cent of the respondents interact 'very frequently' with their male colleagues, thus pointing towards changed attitude of men as well as women towards each other. This was further strengthened by the finding that 21.0 per cent of the

Table VI.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Level of Interaction with Male Colleagues

(Nos.)

Level of Interactions	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Very frequently	25 (54.3)	27 (54.0)	23 (42.2)	75 (56.4)
Quite frequently	11 (23.9)	7 (14.0)	10 (27.0)	28 (21.0)
Infrequently	8 (17.4)	12 (24.0)	3 (8.1)	23 (17.3)
Not at all	2 (4.3)	4 (8.0)	1 (2.7)	7 (5.3)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

respondents had 'quite frequent' level of interaction with their male colleagues. On the other hand 17.3 per cent respondents had infrequent level of interaction and 5.3 per cent reported having no interaction at all. Those respondents who have reported having no interaction at all were either sharing rooms with only women or had their own cabins hence being preoccupied by their work get no time to move out of their work environment to interact with male colleagues.

As observed earlier a significant proportion of our respondents are working in male dominated culture and having fairly good level of interaction it becomes necessary to examine the extent of discrimination and problems they face in sharing room, if any (Table VI.7). We observe that private sector respondents face greater amount of harassment due to their gender and this type of discrimination is not reported by Central and State government respondents. Relatively higher proportion of Central government (52.2 per cent) respondents reported

Table VI.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Discrimination by Male Colleagues at Work Place

(Nos.)

Discrimination	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
They treat you differently	24 (52.2)	15 (30.0)	18 (48.6)	57 (42.8)
They harass because of gender	-	-	5 (13.5)	5 (3.7)
They put pressure of their work on you	18 (39.1)	13 (26.0)	20 (54.0)	41 (30.8)
You yourself can't feel free	2 (4.3)	9 (18.0)	3 (8.1)	14 (10.5)
Sexual innuendoes	-	-	1 (2.7)	1 (0.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

being treated differently, followed by private sector (48.6 per cent) and State government employees (30.0 per cent). Treated differently include being treated inferior and sympathetically due to gender. Yet another type of harassment faced by 30.8 per cent of our respondents is that male colleagues transfer pressure of their work on females. Private sector respondents have reported this problem in greater numbers (54.0 per cent) as compared to Central (39.1 per cent) and State government (26.0 per cent) respondents. Only 10.5 per cent respondents could not feel free with male colleagues on their own. Sexual innuendoes are reported by only one respondent from private sector. Thus we observe that male attitude of conservatism towards women workers still pervade the present day work atmosphere though in subtle form. However, few cases of females bound by tradition and social mores are reported who consider talking to male other than their family members as an indicator of bad character and hence themselves can not feel free to interact with male colleagues. A majority of respondents reveal transition in the attitude of male colleagues towards working females as they treat them at par with themselves.

VI.3.2 Relation with Superiors and Subordinates : It is also important to discuss the attitude of male superiors towards women workers as this would have effect on their status in the workplace and entry into the workforce.

Table VI.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Attitude of Superiors

(Nos.)

Religion	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establishment Employees	Total Employees
Treat you equally	38 (82.6)	43 (86.0)	29 (78.3)	103 (77.4)
They are defiant against you	1 (2.2)	—	—	1 (0.7)
They don't consider you to be capable of handling the job satisfactorily	3 (6.5)	7 (14.0)	9 (24.3)	19 (14.3)
They harass you by increasing work load	7 (15.2)	3 (6.0)	5 (13.5)	15 (11.3)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

Respondent's perception of the attitude of their male superiors is reflected by Table VI.8. We observe that 77.4 per cent of the respondents felt that their superiors treated them equally with their male colleagues. However, earlier we had established that some of the respondents had reported facing employer's bias i.e., about 23 per cent of the respondents faced various other modes of discrimination from their superiors. We, further observe that 14.3 per cent

respondents reported that they were not considered capable of handling the job efficiently because of their gender and 11.3 per cent felt that their employer's harass them by increasing work load on them, taking them for granted.

We observe that above 80 per cent respondents from government sector reported equal treatment from their superiors whereas we find that discriminatory attitude and bias of superiors is more prevalent in the private sector. A relatively higher per cent of respondents from private sector reported that they are not considered to be efficient enough to handle the job with decision making and hence are kept away from such ventures.

From previous observation we derive that certain perceptual changes have emerged amongst males regarding women workers. Analysis of the attitude of male superiors have already been taken up and further analysis of attitude of male subordinates would help to highlight the changes that have pervaded into today's work arena. Table VI.9 highlights this issue. We find that 45.8 per cent felt that their subordinates were indifferent towards their sex and 33.1 per cent felt that their subordinates respected them because of their sex. Only 2.2 per cent respondents had reported resentment in the attitude of their subordinates thus,

Table VI.9 : Distribution of Respondents According to Attitude of Male Subordinates

(Nos.)

Attitude	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Emplo-yees
They obey you	21 (45.6)	27 (54.0)	13 (35.1)	61 (45.8)
They respect you because of sex	18 (39.1)	17 (34.0)	9 (24.3)	44 (33.1)
They resent you because of sex	1 (2.2)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.7)	3 (2.2)
They are in-different	6 (13.0)	5 (10.0)	14 (37.8)	25 (48.8)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

reflecting that the incidence of resentment is low and degree of discrimination at the hands of male subordinate is also low. It is revealed that there is a concrete change in the perception of males against female workers of secretarial cadre and thus today secretarial women workers are treated without distinction.

From a close look at different categories we find that the incidence of obedience and respect of male subordinates towards their women superiors is

comparatively low in private sector than in the government sector. On the other hand, we also find that 37.8 per cent of respondents reported being treated indifferently in the hands of male subordinates in the private sector. We observe that only 13.0 per cent and 10.0 per cent of Central and State government respondents face indifferent attitude inspite of their sex from their male subordinates. On the whole, we find the incidence of obedience and respect because of sex is greater in government sector and as respondents entry into private sector is new the attitude of indifference is found to be more prevalent.

VI.4 Decision-Making Powers

As pointed out earlier 14.3 per cent of the respondents reported that their superiors discriminated against them in the decision making responsibilities. Other studies too, corroborate our finding that women are neglected being absorbed into jobs requiring high-decision making or are not offered the decision making powers (Murdoch, 1984). From Table VI.10 we find that 73.7 per cent respondents responded that decision making powers that they possess were in consonance with their designation, thus establishing that these are the workers who did not experience any discrimination on this issue. 26.3 per cent of the respondents reported

Table VI.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to their Opinion about Consonance between Designation and Decision Making

(Nos.)

Category	Decision making power in consonance	Decision making power not in consonance
Central Government Employees	38 (82.6)	8 (17.4)
State Government Employees	35 (70.0)	15 (30.0)
Private (Act) Esta- blishment Employees	25 (67.6)	12 (32.4)
Total Employees	98 (73.7)	35 (26.3)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

that the decision making power that they enjoy is not in consonance because of departmental politics, nepotism, favouritism and male domination. First three factors are devoid of any gender bias and the respondents who reported that their superiors considered them not being able to handle the responsibility either because of their conservative attitude or because they were inexperienced on this front as these respondents had joined the work force due to unavoidable circumstances. A relatively higher proportion of private sector respondents reported that their decision making powers were not in consonance with their designation.

VI.5 Degree of Success

What external forces are imposed on the secretarial women workers is one aspect of study of discrimination and the other and more important aspect is what women themselves feel about being discriminated. Table VI.11 throws light upon the question that was posed to our respondents - 'why women have to work harder to succeed in their career' and the reasons assigned thereof. It is seen that 78.9 per cent of the respondents felt that they have to work harder to succeed in their career. A relatively high competition in the private sector propels higher proportion (83.8 per cent) of respondents to claim that they have to work harder to succeed in their motives. It becomes obvious that inspite of these female's breaking away from their traditional norms and social moores they themselves do not feel secure and hence have to work harder. Further, when we analyse different reasons assigned for hard work by women secretarial workers, we observe that 76.7 per cent attribute their hard work to the fact that they have to prove their worth in the male-dominated society and work place due to existing female stereotypes. A significantly higher proportion of Central government (71.7 per cent), private sector (62.2 per cent) respondents felt that because of the dual responsibility of work and home they are compelled to work harder. This highlights the fact that for these middle class

Table VI.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons Why Women Have to Work Harder to Succeed in their Career

(Nos.)

Religion	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Number of those who feel women have to work harder to succeed	33 (71.7)	41 (82.0)	31 (83.8)	105 (78.9)
<u>Reasons</u>				
Dual responsi-bility of office and domes-tic work	33 (71.7)	30 (60.0)	23 (62.2)	86 (64.6)
Restrictions due to gender	23 (50.0)	25 (50.0)	28 (75.6)	76 (57.1)
Have to prove their worth in a male domina-ted society	30 (65.2)	41 (82.0)	31 (83.8)	102 (76.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

secretarial women workers the traditional role of 'home-maker' still exists very strongly. Restrictions due to gender was the reason for 57.1 per cent of the respondents. Within the purview of this reason exists the lower vocational training, lower educational qualification and social restrictions that restricts these females to low skilled clerical jobs.

VI.6 Discrimination in Wages

Wage discrimination in its pure and overt form - namely prevalence of different pay packets for men and women in the same job with standardised nomenclature is generally denied by the employer's nor can it be directly observed. Several studies have focussed on this issue (Papola, 1982; Larwood, Stromberg Gutek, 1985; Anker and Heins, 1986; Misra, 1990). Almost all studies dealing with women workers conclude that average earning of females is lower than average earning of males (Papola, 1982; Vianello and Siemiens Lea, 1990; Davidson and Cooper, 1984). Our study, however, corroborates the hypothesis that discrimination in wages are more apparent in the private sector than the public sector. We find that 10 respondents (Table VI.4) of private sector reported receiving different pay packets while all the respondents in the government sector were enjoying the facility of Equal Remuneration Act of 1976. We also find that all these respondents of private sector are low qualified, new entrants and did not have the opportunity of acquiring on-the-job training.

In short, our hypothesis that differences in earnings are due to differences in education, experience and on-the-job training holds good. We may, therefore, conclude that overt and blatant forms of discrimination do not prevail in the government sector but few cases of

earning differentials are reported from the private sector.

VI.7 Job-Satisfaction

Respondents were asked the question : "Are you satisfied, unsatisfied or feel indifferent with your job?". Blauner (1960) criticises the use of a direct question on job satisfaction, but acknowledges that such a question differentiates meaningfully between various occupations. We have examined job satisfaction along six lines i.e. remuneration, suitable working hours, promotion prospects, security of services, provision of maternity leave and extent of decision making powers. According to Herzog (1982) holding jobs that entail autonomy, authority and prestige and promotion possibilities affects the degree of satisfaction for men more than for women, while relational expressive and nurturant features of the job play a more important role for women than for men in breeding a feeling of job satisfaction in employment (Kilkpatrick et.al., 1964; Kulpinska, 1975). Crosby's finding (1982) is that women's expectations from employment are lower than men's and hence they tend to adjust their feelings of satisfaction more easily.

From Table VI.12 we observe that on the whole the respondents have replied either directly as being satisfied or dis-satisfied. On remuneration front 60

Table VI.12 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Level of Job Satisfaction
(Nos.)

Aspects of Job	Satisfied	Un-satisfied	Indifferent
Remuneration	79 (59.4)	46 (34.6)	8 (6.0)
Suitable working hours	118 (88.7)	13 (9.8)	2 (1.2)
Promotion	62 (46.6)	52 (39.1)	19 (14.3)
Security of services	102 (76.7)	26 (19.5)	5 (3.8)
Provision of maternity benefits/leaves	75 (56.4)	17 (12.8)	41 (30.8)
Decision making	71 (53.4)	35 (26.3)	27 (20.3)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

per cent of the respondents reported being satisfied and 6 per cent said that this factor hardly matters and are indifferent as whatever they are earning is sufficient and is better than having nothing. Regarding working hours about 90 per cent of the respondents were satisfied and the percentage of unsatisfied respondents was low i.e., 9.8 per cent as hours of work are fixed in government sector and also in some of the private sector establishments.

While analysing respondents' satisfaction regarding promotion prospects we find that the proportion of

respondents satisfied on this front was lower (46.6 per cent) and 39 per cent said bluntly that they were not satisfied at all. In the case of security of service 76.7 per cent are satisfied and 19.5 per cent reported being unsatisfied regarding this parameter. This reflects the fact that government service provides maximum security and in private sector also security is there in some cases.

Another important parameter discussed is provision of maternity leave. Here again we observe that 56.4 per cent of the respondents are satisfied either because they have availed this benefit or are in such organisation where this provision is availed off by their female colleagues. Only 12.8 per cent respondents felt unsatisfied. They are basically from private sector where the employer's terminate the services or provide this facility without pay. A relatively higher proportion of the respondents (30.8 per cent) reflected their feeling of indifference because majority of them were unmarried and hence do not understand the problems that married females face during maternity.

We have observed earlier that a majority of the respondents felt that the decision making powers they possess were in consonance with their designation. 26.3 per cent of the respondents answered that they were not satisfied with their employer's regarding this issue.

On the other hand, 20.3 per cent of the respondents said that they feel indifferent either because they could not decide accurately or because they were in the work-force due to some economic necessity, hence this issue hardly matters to them.

VI.8 Conclusion

An in-depth analysis of the extent of discrimination and bias and the level of job satisfaction amongst our respondents was carried out in this chapter. We observed that a fair majority of respondents were of the view that social attitude of the society is discriminatory. A third of the respondents experienced discrimination during their childhood, thus implying that subtle form of discrimination is prevalent in the middle income families.

We further observed that though a majority of respondents did not experience any discrimination at the time of recruitment in the form of employer's bias, some did express a feeling of discrimination due to employer's notion that women are absent from duty very often, specially in the private sector. This is further re-affirmed by the fact that one-fifth of the respondents reported discrimination due to male domination in society and some 16.5 per cent felt employer's bias because of employer's conservative

attitude. Employer's bias was more prevalent in private sector as compared to other two categories.

Analysis of work relationship reveal that most of the respondents are working in male-dominated environment as a maximum number of respondents had mostly male co-workers and shared their room with a mixed group. Changed attitude of men as well as women is revealed by the fact that a high proportion of respondents have a very frequent interactional level with each other. We observe that private sector respondents face greater amount of harassment due to their gender and such cases of overt harassment was not reported by government sector respondents. One-third of the respondent's reported that their male colleagues transfer burden of their work on females and few cases of being treated differently were reported.

Our analysis of the attitude of male subordinates and superiors towards the respondents reveals that majority of them are treated equally with their male colleagues, signifying that women have generally been accepted in this cadre at an almost equal status as males, except in the private sector where such discrimination and bias are more prevalent. Also we find that the incidence of obedience and respect of male subordinates towards their women superiors is comparatively low in private sector than in the government sector.

Further, it is revealed from the analysis that about 80 per cent of the respondents felt that they have to work harder to succeed in their career because of the existing female stereotype in the male dominated atmosphere.

We also observed that respondents had a fairly high level of job satisfaction regarding remuneration, working hours, extent of decision making powers and security of services. However, a high number of respondents were unsatisfied on matters of promotion.

Thus we conclude that by and large our respondents reported equal treatment by the colleagues, superiors and subordinates as they belong to educated class. Some cases of conservatism, discrimination and employer's bias still prevails, moreso in the private sector.

CHAPTER VII

Domestic Duties, Role Conflict and Impact on Status

VII.0 Introduction

The traditional division of labour in family enjoins upon man the sole responsibility of earning the family income and the woman is made responsible to look after the home and children. One of the main enduring consequences of the recent social evolution for woman has been their emancipation from their tradition bound ethos, both legally and politically by the virtue of various acts and statutes (Kapur, 1972). Now that women have started entering the labour force, the traditional division of labour in the family has been affected. Being subjected to the dual demands of home and work, which are often antagonistic in nature, the working women (especially married women) are liable to experience role conflict. The wage earning wife's dual responsibilities lead to the need for a modification of household responsibilities towards a more egalitarian division of labour at home. Various studies have highlighted this problem of adjustment between home and office work and the redistribution of domestic duties between husband and wife (Blood and Hamblin¹, 1958; Hoffman², 1960; Olsen,³ 1960; Powell⁴, 1961; Kapur⁵, 1970; Srivastava⁶, 1978; Feinstein⁷, 1979; Talwar⁸,

1984; Anker and Hein⁹, 1986; Lapidus¹⁰, 1988; , etc.). Having less time and more incongruent demands of dual roles the working woman is experiencing more and more role conflict in the present time as several studies have shown (Godde, 1960; Nye and Hoffman, 1963; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1965; 1969; Kapur, 1970; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Hall, 1975; Mischol, 1975; Kala Rani, 1976; Chakraborty, 1979; Holahan and Golbert, 1979; Pollert, 1981; Sharpe, 1984; Talwar, 1984; Jain, 1988).

At the same time there has emerged a definite change in the status of women within the household due to her joining the workforce. There is a certain change in decision making within household and being in the labourforce has made them more independent and confident of their individuality as their earning though secondary is essential for the family under todays inflationary pressures.

In this chapter domestic duties of the respondents are analysed in Section I, while manifestation of role conflict in its different forms are taken up in Section II. Section III looks into the impact of job on family behaviour and other related issues of status within the household. Conclusions are summed up in the last section.

VII.1 Domestic Duties

The respondents in our sample are working for 5 - 8 hours per day or even more as in private sector. This prolonged daily absence of woman from home leads obviously to some redistribution of duties and responsibilities within the household (specially for married females). In this section we have taken up issues pertaining to domestic duties, e.g. time taken

Table VII.1 : Average Hours Spent Per Day in Domestic Chores By Respondents

Category of Work	(Nos.)			
	Central Government Employees	State Government Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Em- ployees	Total Emp- ploy-ees
Cooking	2.4 (51.1)	2.0 (47.6)	1.3 (44.8)	1.9 (48.7)
Cleaning the House	0.7 (14.9)	0.8 (19.0)	0.7 (24.1)	0.7 (17.9)
Teaching & Care of Children	1.2 (25.5)	0.8 (19.0)	0.7 (24.1)	0.9 (23.1)
Shopping	0.4 (8.5)	0.6 (14.3)	0.2 (6.9)	0.4 (10.2)
Total Hours of Work	4.7 (100.0)	4.2 (100.0)	2.9 (100.0)	3.9 (100.0)
Being with the Family	3.5	4.5	3.1	3.7

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

for domestic work, husband's contribution in domestic work, dependence on servants and child care responsibility.

VII.1.1 Time Spent on Domestic Work : Srivastava's (1978) study states that employed women have less time at their disposal to spend on their families hence their participation in household tasks is low as compared to non-working women. Same situation is reported by Talwar's (1984) study of Jodhpur city. Table VII.1 shows that average hours spent on domestic chores per day by our respondent are 3.9 hours. This is in consonance with Srivastava's study (1978) of working women in Chandigarh city where she states that middle class working women spend slightly more time (4.60 hours) than the upper class (3.75 hours). Our data reveal that respondents in government sector spend more time in domestic work (i.e. 4.7 hours per day for Central government employees and 4.2 hours per day for State government employees) than the respondents from private sector who spend 2.9 hours per day. This difference in the average time spent on domestic chores can be due to the fact that respondents in government sector have a higher average age (Table III.15) compared to those in private sector where most of the respondents are new entrants, hence, their adherence to traditional sex role is low compared to their government sector

counterparts. Another reason that strikes our mind is that as respondents in private sector belong to younger age group, they are also the recently married group and as a consequence the number of children is less. A higher proportion of them are unmarried too, and thus are not expected to perform the household chores in full, hence spend no time in teaching and care of children.

Looking into different facets of domestic chore we find that government sector respondents spend more time on cooking - 2.4 hours and 2.0 hours respectively - whereas private sector respondents spend a lower than average time on the same. Teaching and care of children have traditionally been the concern of women exclusively. We observe that more than half of the respondents have children below 10 years of age, hence the time spent on this activity is fairly low i.e. at an average of 0.9 hours. As government sector respondents have more children they spend more time on teaching and care of children. Traditionally the belief prevailed that shopping for household need was the work which men should perform but we find that even our respondents spend 0.4 hours on an average per day in shopping. Thus, we can say that they are slowly breaking away from traditional norm. Our respondents devote on an average 3.7 hours per day with the family. This time devotion

on family depends on the time left after performing the dual role of worker and a housewife. We find that government sector respondents spend more time on family members as compared to their private sector counterparts. This can be explained by prolonged hours of office work performed by these respondents.

VII.1.2 Extent of Husband's Help in Domestic Chores :

In this section focus is on the extent to which traditional roles are modified as a result of the women's prolonged daily absence from home. A few studies made in Western countries indicate that in the families of working women husband's share in the division of labour at home increases (Blood and Hamblin, 1958; Hoffman, 1960; Powell, 1961; Berk, 1985; Lewis and Cooper, 1988). It was found that the respondents inspite of being employed outside the home were engaged in doing the major part of the domestic duties i.e. the husbands do help them to some extent in all the duties (Table VII.2), thus signifying a change in attitude of husbands regarding stereotype role of women. Shopping the "male task" to a greater extent was shared by 82.6 per cent of the husbands of our respondent. None of the respondent claimed that their husband did not help in this task.

Table VII.2 Distribution of Respondents According to the Extent of Husbands' Contribution in Domestic Duties

(Nos.)

Item	Central Govt. Employees	State Govt. Employees	Private (Act Es- tablishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
<u>(i) Looking After Children</u>				
To a large extent	6 (21.4)	2 (12.5)	5 (35.7)	13 (22.4)
To some extent	16 (57.1)	8 (50.0)	6 (42.8)	30 (51.7)
Not at all	6 (21.4)	6 (37.5)	3 (21.4)	15 (25.9)
<u>(ii) Cooking</u>				
To a large extent	—	—	2 (14.3)	2 (3.4)
To Some extent	8 (28.6)	3 (18.7)	5 (35.7)	16 (25.6)
Not at all	20 (71.4)	13 (81.2)	7 (50.0)	40 (69.0)
<u>(iii) Cleaning the House</u>				
To a large extent	2 (7.1)	—	1 (7.1)	3 (5.2)
To Some extent	10 (35.7)	1 (6.2)	1 (7.1)	12 (22.4)
Not at all	16 (57.1)	14 (87.5)	12 (85.7)	42 (72.4)

Contd.../-

Table VII.2 Contd.

	0	1	2	3	4
<hr/>					
(iv) <u>Shopping</u>					
To a large extent	23 (82.1)	12 (75.0)	13 (92.8)	48 (82.6)	
To some extent	5 (17.8)	4 (25.0)	1 (7.1)	10 (17.2)	
Not at all	-	-	-	-	
 (v) <u>Teaching Children</u>					
To a large extent	16 (57.1)	5 (31.2)	10 (71.4)	31 (53.4)	
To some extent	9 (32.1)	11 (68.8)	4 (28.6)	24 (41.4)	
Not at all	3 (10.7)	-	-	3 (5.2)	
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Note : Percentages to total respondents living with their husbands in different categories is denoted by figures in parentheses.

Change in the traditional stereotype thinking of 'female task' of looking after children is observed. We find that 25.9 per cent of the husband of our respondents do not share the responsibility of looking after the children. 51.7 per cent of the husbands share this responsibility to some extent and 22.4 per cent share to a large extent - though its a women's tasks. 'Cooking' and 'Cleaning the household' are the duties which are assigned to females from time immemorial - which have 69.0 per cent and 72.4 per cent of the

respondents who get no help at all from their husbands. Almost 95 per cent of the respondent's husbands extend their help in teaching children. We therefore find that our respondents are slowly moving towards an egalitarian family set-up with husbands discarding the traditional stereotype thinking and sharing in household duties.

VII.1.3 Servants Hired : One basic problem that the employment of women pose is that they get limited time at their disposal for domestic duties, hence to some

Table VII.3 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number of Servants They have Hired
(Nos.)

Members of Servants	Central Govt. Employees	State Govt. Employees	Private (Act Es- tablishment Employees	Total Empl- yees
<u>Servants Hired</u>				
(i) One	30 (65.2)	29 (58.0)	25 (67.6)	84 (63.2)
(ii) Two	8 (17.4)	12 (24.0)	7 (18.9)	27 (20.3)
(iii) More than Two	2 (4.3)	-	5 (13.5)	7 (5.3)
Total Number of Respondents who hired servants	40 (87.0)	41 (82.0)	37 (100.0)	118 (88.7)
Average number of servants per respondents	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.4
Servants/ members ratio	1:3.7	1:3.7	1:2.4	1:3.2

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

extent they depend on hired help. Analysis in previous chapter has established that our respondents belong to middle class families hence hiring servants is quite common. Table VII.3 shows that almost 89 per cent of the respondents have hired help and only 11.3 per cent have to bear the entire burden of domestic work themselves. From the table we observe that only 5.3 per cent of respondents had more than two servants, whereas 83.6 per cent hired one or two servants for washing clothes, cleaning utensils and cleaning house mostly on part-time basis.

A probe into the economic status of the respondents show that the number of respondents hired servants in accordance with their economic status. Private sector respondent households are the most affluent group, hence we find that all the respondents in this group avail the facility of hiring servants. Similar linkage is seen in the average number of servants per respondent with private sector employees having the highest average of 1.6 servants followed by 1.3 servants for central and state government employees each. The calculation of servant member ratio shows that one servant stand for 3.2 members on the whole and the affluent group (Private Sector) have one servant for 2.4 members as compared to one servant for 3.7 members in Central and State government each.

VII.1.4 Child Care : In India, whether they are employed or not, most women bear the primary responsibility of childcare. It is moral responsibility which few women relinquish without guilt. Caring for children is, as Oakley (1974) puts it, part of the myth of motherhood. It has been observed that childcare in mother's absence is easier in Third World and developing countries than in the industrialised nations because domestic help is cheaper in the former and also kin support is available in the extended family situation in these countries (Anker and Hein, 1986). From Table VII.4, we observe that 79.4 per cent of respondents have alternative arrangements for child-care in their absence in the form of husband, in-laws, other family members and servants or other arrangements which include creches and day-care centres for children. Almost 15 per cent of respondents claimed that their husbands performed this duty. This percentage is low because the husbands themselves are in employment. Those who look after their children are either in business, self-employed or working as a teacher so that they can spare time from their work or they call their children at their place of work after school. 44 per cent of the respondents depend upon their in-laws and family members for looking after their children. In our study we observe that only 5 respondents depended on creches and day-care centres for looking after their children. In nuclear families the role of servants is

Table VII.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Arrangements for Looking-after the Children in their Absence

(Nos.)

Arrangements for Looking After the Children	Central Govt. Employees	State Govt. Employees	Private (Act Es- tablishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
Husband	3 (9.6)	3 (12.0)	4 (33.3)	10 (14.7)
In-laws/Other Family Members	14 (45.2)	10 (40.0)	6 (50.0)	30 (44.1)
Servants	4 (12.9)	3 (12.0)	2 (16.7)	9 (13.2)
Other Arrangements	3 (9.7)	2 (8.0)	-	5 (7.4)
Total	24 (77.4)	18 (72.0)	12 (100.0)	54 (79.4)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

quite prominent. The remaining respondents had grown up children and thus did not have to depend on other arrangements for looking after their children.

The role of husbands in looking after their children was found to be higher in private sector, because most of them had their own business and hence facilitated them to enjoy this responsibility at their place of work.

VII.1.5 Attitude of Family Members Towards Respondent's Job : From Table VII.5 we can assess the attitude of respondents' family members towards their job. It is interesting to note that a large majority of the respondents reported high level of approval from their family members towards their job. Only a few (8.0 per cent) felt that their parents have low level of approval towards their present job. 82.7 per cent of husbands have a high level of approval towards respondents' job. Other studies too stress that husbands of employed woman have generally approved their wife's jobs (Ross, 1961; Nye, 1963; Srivastava, 1978).

Table VII.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to Attitude of Family Members Towards Their Job

(Nos.)

Relationship with Respondents	Degree of Approval		
	Low	Moderate	High
Husband	4 (6.9)	6 (10.3)	48 (82.7)
Parents	8 (8.0)	16 (16.0)	76 (76.0)
Parents-in-law	—	2 (4.5)	42 (95.5)
Children	2 (2.9)	21 (30.8)	45 (66.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

In the case of parents and parents-in-law 76.0 and 95.5 per cent of respondents reported high level of approval and 16.0 per cent of respondent's showed moderate level of approval by their parents. None of the respondents reported low level of approval of their parents-in-law.

Attitude of respondent's children towards acceptance of their job is really interesting to note. 66.2 per cent of respondents reported a high level of approval of their children towards their jobs. Some 30.8 per cent of the respondents felt that their children moderately approved of their job and only 2.9 per cent of respondents reported a low level of approval of the children towards their being in job. On the whole, we find that our respondents have a high level of approval of their family members towards their being in employment hence their support helps them to restore the balance between office and domestic responsibilities. This changed attitude of family members can be attributed to the realisation of increasing economic pressure as well as growing awareness regarding rights of women with increase in education.

VII.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict is the term used to denote the problem situations which arise due to simultaneous occupancy of two positions by an individual. This is

what happens when a women has to perform simultaneously roles of a housewife and an employee. Since, employment of middle class women is a new phenomenon, their role and positions are not clearly defined and thus role conflict may be accentuated. This may manifest itself in a feeling of guilt in the women for neglecting domestic duties specially child-care, tension at home, poor health because of overwork, inefficiency at work etc. Various studies have highlighted this problem both in Western countries and in India (Chakraborty, 1977; Menon, 1964; Mahajan, 1966; Mckinnon, 1964; Nevill & Demicco, 1975; Raja Gopalan, 1963; Wardwell, 1852; Kapur, 1970; Srivastava, 1978; Talwar, 1984; Jain, 1988; Hoffman, 1979; Kamerman, 1980; Pollert, 1981; Shorpe, 1984).

Various manifestations of role conflict is the form of adjustment between office and home work, extent to which they carry office work at home, problems pursued and the respondents preference between job and family are discussed in this section.

VII.2.1 Extent of Adjustment Between Domestic and

Office Work : Women of today are assuming different roles besides the role within their homes. She has to play traditional role of housewife and modern role of worker simultaneously which creates difficulty in combining the two roles together. We asked the

respondents to note down the extent of the adjustment they are able to reach in their dual roles.

From Table VII.6 we observe that 60.9 per cent of the respondents have reported adjustment reached to a greater extent and this finding is in consonance to the findings of Talwar's (1984) study, where over half the respondents felt that official and domestic work could be carried out simultaneously. Similarly in Misra's (1990) study, 64 per cent of the respondents reported high level of adjustment between domestic and office work. 36.8 per cent of our respondents reported

Table VII.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Adjustment Between Office and Domestic Work

(Nos.)

Type of Organisation	Extent of Adjustment		
	To Some Extent	Greater Extent	Not at all
Central Govt. Employees	16 (34.7)	30 (65.2)	-
State Govt. Employees	25 (50.0)	23 (46.0)	2 (4.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	8 (21.6)	28 (75.7)	1 (2.7)
Total Employees	49 (36.8)	81 (60.9)	3 (2.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

adjustment between domestic and office work to some extent. Only 3 respondents had placed themselves in the category of being unsatisfied in bringing about adjustment between their dual roles. Within the categories the proportion of private sector respondents in the category of adjustment of greater extent was reported to be higher than the average proportion and this can be attributed to the fact that the proportion of unmarried respondents is more in this group, hence they don't have to do much of the domestic chores, therefore, there is no problem faced by them in combining the two roles. Besides this, these secretarial workers are able to achieve husbands' help, hired help and family support in easing their burden of domestic chores, hence our respondents are able to achieve the critical balance between domestic and office work.

VII.2.2 Frequency of Carrying Office Work to Home :

Working women have to manage in terms of time both the household and the job responsibilities. Different activities attached to different roles require definite amount of time in a day. The limitation of time always produces role conflict among working women (Bhatty and Bhatty, 1971; Chakraborty, 1977; Dahlstoom, 1967; Hoffman, 1963; Kala Rani, 1976; Rappoport and Rappoport, 1969). Goode (1960) had also maintained that while meeting different expectations and obligations attached

with different roles, woman experienced conflict due to time, place, or resources. Bhatti and Bhatti (1971) have pointed out that household work-load has become the problem for working women as the joint family is dying out and servants are not available today. This poses a problem of time limitation on the part of working women to meet both house work and job work. Thus, time management between office and domestic work is of crucial importance to avoid role conflict and tension.

In our sample we observed that all the respondents had been able to separate office and domestic work as none of them have reported carrying office work to home - hence, manifestation of conflict due to cutting down the time devoted to the family by carrying office work to home is totally absent due to the specific nature of job, i.e., clerical work.

VII.2.3 Adverse Effects of Being in Employment : Table VII.8 shows adverse effects of being in job on different parameters viz. tension at home, health of respondents, upbringing of children, married life, role conflict. We observe that 37.6 per cent of the respondents are adversely effected in some form or the other due to their being in job. The largest proportion of respondents (31.6 per cent) being adversely effected on health front as a result of combining office and domestic duties. We find that the number of respondents

Table VII.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number Who have been Adversely Effected because of Job

(Nos.)

Category	Central Govt. Employees	State Govt. Employees	Private (Act Es- tablishment Employees	Total Emplo- yees
1. Tension at home because of their job	1 (2.2)	4 (8.0)	2 (5.4)	7 (5.3)
2. Respondents whose health is adversely affected because of job	9 (19.6)	14 (28.0)	19 (51.3)	42 (31.6)
3. Respondents who experienced role conflict	4 (8.7)	2 (4.0)	7 (15.2)	13 (9.8)
4. Upbringing of Child- dren is effected	8 (17.4)	12 (24.0)	4 (10.8)	24 (18.0)
5. Married life is affected	2 (4.3)	1 (2.0)	5 (13.5)	8 (6.0)
6. Total Respondents adversely effected	13 (28.3)	26 (42.0)	11 (29.7)	50 (37.6)
7. Respondents have considered leaving job	1 (2.2)	3 (6.0)	1 (2.7)	5 (3.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

whose health is adversely affected is more in private sector as these respondents are working for more hours and travelling for a greater distance to reach office, hence experience fatigue and tiredness due to over work.

Only 5.3 per cent of the respondents have reported tension in the home because of their job and 9.8 per cent have reported the existence of role conflict. Further, we see that 18 per cent of the respondents experience adverse effect of their job on upbringing of their children and the highest afflicted category is state government respondents. This can be explained by highlighting the fact that in this category the number of respondents receiving help in looking after their children was lowest. A relatively higher proportion of private sector respondents have complained that they are experiencing role conflict (15.2 per cent) and hence their married life is affected (13.5) due to their job as they have to work for more hours compared to other categories. Though more than one-third of the respondents have been adversely affected because of their employment, it is significant that only 3.8 per cent have actually considered giving up their jobs.

VII.2.4 Preference Between Job and Family : It has been observed that some of the respondents reported being adversely affected due to the dual responsibilities of worker and house wife. Now, we analyse the preferences of our respondents between their job and family if there is conflict because of the dual burden. It is significant to note that 72.2 per cent of the respondents said that they would defuse the conflict by compromising between job and family (Table VII.9). It

shows a change in the attitude of women towards their job as we find that they are giving importance to their job instead to giving up their job in the event of conflict. However, some respondents (17.3 per cent) are still committed to the stereotype role of women and said that they will give more importance to their family. On other hand, preference to job was given by some 10.5 per cent of respondents thus implying complete change in their traditional perception of women's responsibilities and duties.

Table VII.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Preference Between Job and Family

(Nos.)

Type of Employment	Respondents Giving Preference to			Total
	Their Job	Their Family	Compromise between Job and Family	
Central Govt. Employees	3 (6.5)	4 (8.7)	39 (84.8)	46 (100.0)
State Govt. Employees	6 (12.0)	13 (26.0)	31 (62.0)	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	5 (13.5)	6 (16.2)	26 (70.2)	37 (100.0)
Total Employees	14 (10.5)	23 (17.3)	96 (72.2)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

VII.3 Impact on Status

VII.3.1 Effect on Important Domestic Issues : In the traditional joint family system, authority to decide on family matters was usually centralised in the hands of head of household. However, due to their economic contribution, working wives have greater say in domestic affairs—breaking away from the patriarchal system. Heer (1958) has stated that both in the working class and in the middle class the working wife exerts more influence in family decision making than the non-working wife. Kligler's study (1951) of working mothers in New York shows that the working mother influenced family decisions on major purchases, loans, savings and investments to a greater extent than did the non-working mothers. In our study, we observe the effect of respondents being in job on domestic issues such as family expenditure, purchase of durable goods, management of household, career and marriage of children in Table VII.10. Taking up family expenditure, we observe that being in employment make some difference for 49.6 per cent of respondents and greater difference for 39.1 per cent of respondents in their say on this particular issue. It means that the respondents economic contribution to the family income has a definite effect on the monthly expenditure pattern of their household. Only 11.3 per cent of the respondents

Table VII.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Effect of Their Being in Job on Domestic Issues

Category	Family Expenditure			Purchase of Durable Goods			Management of House-hold		
	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect
Central Govt. Employees	3 (6.5)	30 (65.2)	13 (28.3)	4 (8.6)	29 (63.0)	13 (28.3)	4 (8.6)	27 (58.7)	14 (30.4)
State Govt. Employees	2 (4.0)	21 (42.0)	27 (54.0)	4 (8.0)	25 (50.0)	21 (42.0)	5 (10.0)	13 (26.0)	31 (62.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	10 (16.2)	15 (40.5)	12 (32.4)	9 (24.3)	12 (32.4)	15 (40.5)	10 (16.2)	13 (35.1)	15 (40.5)
Total Employees	15 (11.3)	66 (49.6)	52 (39.1)	17 (12.8)	66 (49.6)	49 (36.8)	19 (14.3)	53 (39.8)	60 (45.1)

	Career of Children [*]			Marriage of Children [*]		
	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect
Central Govt. Employees	8 (24.2)	15 (45.4)	8 (24.2)	9 (27.3)	8 (24.2)	3 (9.0)
State Govt. Employees	5 (17.8)	11 (39.3)	23 (82.1)	22 (78.6)	3 (10.7)	4 (14.3)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	14 (93.3)	4 (26.7)	7 (46.7)	14 (93.3)	2 (13.3)	1 (6.7)
Total Employees	27 (35.5)	30 (39.5)	38 (50.0)	45 (59.2)	13 (17.1)	8 (10.5)

Note : Figures in parenthesisss denote the percentages.

* Percentages have been calculated from the number of married respondents only.

reported that their being in the job made no difference to their say on family expenditure.

Looking into the say of the respondents on the matters of purchase of durable goods we observe that 49.6 per cent of the respondents reported some effect in their say on this issue and 36.8 per cent said their being in job made considerably greater effect in their say on such purchases. However, 12.8 per cent of the respondents said that their being in job made no difference at all in purchase of durable goods. Within the categories we find that larger than average proportion of private sector respondents reported no

effect in their say on purchase of durable goods. . This is so because the percentage of unmarried women is larger and hence have a limited say in household affairs.

On the issue of career and marriage of children relatively low proportion of respondents reported having any say on this issue. This is attributed to the fact that unmarried respondents are not included. In the matter of management of household 40 per cent respondents reported some effect in their say and 45.1 per cent greater effect in their say in this issue. During the survey, we observed that married respondents were the ones who reported some effect and greater effect in their say on these domestic issues. Mostly unmarried respondents reported having no effect at all of their being in job on such family issues. We find that almost 50 per cent of married respondents had influence on career of children and only 15 per cent reported having say in matters related to marriage of children - thus giving considerable authority to their male counterparts in such big issues as marriage of children. Thus, we find that male dominance is still persisting in our society.

VII.3.2 Authority to Decide on Monetary Expenditure :

In a patriarchal system, the decision is mostly made by the elder males (Talwar, 1984). But in modern families

the educated females are taking over the function of keeping the family budget. In our sample, however, we observe that 39.8 per cent of the respondents have reported that both husband and the respondents have an equal say on monetary expenditure (Table VII.11). As established earlier married respondents contribute actively to household expenditure, they thus, utilise the authority to decide on matters related to monetary expenditure. In case of unmarried respondents fathers

Table VII.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Decision-making Power on Monetary Expenditure in Their Family

(Nos.)

Category	Central Govt. Employees	State Govt. Employees	Private (Act) Establish-ment Employees	Total Em-plo-yees
Respondent Alone	8 (17.4)	8 (16.0)	5 (13.5)	21 (15.8)
Husband Alone	5 (10.9)	2 (4.0)	2 (5.4)	9 (6.8)
Both have equal say	23 (50.0)	14 (28.0)	12 (32.4)	49 (36.8)
Other Family Members	10 (21.7)	26 (52.0)	18 (48.6)	54 (40.6)
Total	46 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

role in decision regarding monetary expenditure is very significant. In 40.6 per cent of cases other family members have the final say in this matter. In four cases of widows in state government father-in-law and mother-in-law possess the authority to decide on monetary expenditure and in 6.8 per cent of cases

husbands alone have the final say on monetary matters - thus reflecting upon the existence of traditional patriarchal structure of family. In a few cases (15.8 per cent), respondents reported that they themselves have the final authority on this issue and these respondents are either widowed, divorced, separated or unmarried elderly women in our sample. A roughly similar pattern is observed amongst the respondents within the three categories.

VII.3.3 Effect on Family Behaviour : Effect of respondent's employment on the behaviour of family members is given in Table VII.12. We observe that on the issues related to respect, obedience, seeking advice and being treated equally with males, above 50 per cent respondents did show some difference because of their career. Some differences was reported by respondents on respect (30.0 per cent) and obedience of family members (36.8 per cent) and 19.5 per cent reported substantial differences in the family behaviour on both the issues.

Table VII.12 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Effect of Their Employment on the Behaviour of Family Members

(Nos.)

Behaviour	Effect of Employment			
	No Diff- erence	Some Diff- erence	Substan- tial Diff- erence	Major Differ- ence
Respect	59 (44.4)	40 (30.0)	26 (19.5)	3 (2.3)
Obedience	52 (39.0)	49 (36.8)	26 (19.5)	6 (4.6)
Seeking Advise	48 (36.1)	41 (30.8)	28 (21.0)	13 (9.8)
Treated Equa- lly with Males	41 (30.8)	36 (27.1)	36 (27.1)	10 (7.5)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.

One striking fact noted is that in matters of seeking advise some 52 per cent of respondents reported some or substantial effect of their being in employment - thus highlighting the fact that being in job increases repondents say in family affairs and hence family members do seek advise from working women of the family. 27.1 per cent of respondents reported that because of their employment they are treated equally with males in the family to some extent and same per cent reported substantial extent. Very few respondents placed their

career orientation as having major difference in the the family behaviour.

VII.3.4 Effect of Job on Personality Development :

Personality development was reported to be one of the major motivating factors for respondents to pursue a job. It is therefore, significant to assess the impact of the respondents' pursuit of career on their personality, independence and self-satisfaction. This aspect is reported in the Table VII.13. We observe that 58.6 per cent of respondents reported very favourable impact on personality and 38.3 per cent reported favourable impact. Only in 3.0 per cent cases unfavourable effect was reported. Assessing the impact of the job on respondent's independence, a very high per

Table VII.13 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Impact of Their Job on Personality Development

(Nos.)

Category	Very Favourable	Favourable	Unfavourable
Personality Development	78 (58.6)	51 (38.3)	4 (3.0)
Independence	60 (45.1)	65 (48.9)	8 (6.0)
Self Satisfaction	113 (85.0)	19 (14.3)	1 (0.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.

cent of the respondents placed themselves on the very favourable (45.1 per cent) or favourable (48.9 per cent) category. This may be attributed to the fact that being in employment helps our respondents to have greater economic independence and hence helps them to achieve financial stability with authority to decide on monetary matters. Being in employment prefix upon our respondents to have independent identity of their own and hence enhances their level of self-expression in terms of self-satisfaction. Only one case of having unfavourable impact on the level of self-satisfaction was reported. However, 85.0 per cent and 14.3 per cent of respondents showed very favourable and favourable impact - thus indicating widening of their horizons of achieving self-satisfaction through pursuit of a career. On the whole we find that respondents job has a favourable impact on their personality development, independence and self-satisfaction.

VII.3.5 Opinion of Respondents on the Status of Working Women : During the survey, an enquiry was made to know the opinion of respondents regarding the status of working women. They were asked "does working women occupy higher status than a house-wife in the present day society?". 82.0 per cent of respondents gave positive response in favour of the working women. This reflects upon the change in the attitude of society and

Table VII.14 : Distribution of Respondents According to their Opinion of the Status of Working Women

(Nos.)

Category	Very Favourable	Favourable	Unfavourable
Central Govt. Employees	37 (80.4)	9 (19.6)	46 (100.0)
State Govt. Employees	39 (78.0)	11 (22.0)	50 (100.0)
Private (Act) Establishment Employees	33 (89.2)	4 (10.8)	37 (100.0)
Total Employees	109 (82.0)	24 (18.0)	133 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.

acceptance of working women motivates them to feel that they are a degree higher than their counterparts as house-wives. Only 18.0 per cent of the respondents felt that the status of house-wives was more favourable and they were in the job due to economic necessity either due to some mishappening in the family or due to increasing inflationary pressures.

VII.4 Conclusion

We now sum up the findings of our analysis. A significant conclusion of our study is that the respondents get help from their husbands in domestic

chores to some extent, thus leading to evolution of a more egalitarian division of labour at home. Respondents in private sector who new entrants and belong to younger age groups hence their adherence to traditional sex role is low compared to their government sector counterparts.

We find that the majority of respondents depend on hired help and the number of servants has a close linkage to the economic status of the respondents. Large proportion of respondents are helped by their family members in looking after their children. Another important issue is that family members of the respondents approve their present jobs - thus minimising the possibility of existence of role conflict due to family's attitude.

The traditional patriarchal system is found to be breaking away. We find that though more than one-third respondents are adversely effected due to their job in some way or the other but the proportion ready to leave the job is extremely low. Respondents have high level of adjustment between domestic and office work and this is due to the presence of kin and hired help which further reduces the extent of role conflict. Majority of respondents reported defusing conflict if ever by compromising between their dual role, hence highlighting a concrete change in the attitude of women towards job.

We further find that because of their being on job has brought about change in their family behaviour viz., respect, obedience, seeking advise, career and marriage of children. Females are also equally treated within their families in matters of decision making and purchases of durable goods and matters related to monetary expenditure. Job has had markedly a favourable impact on the respondents personality development, independence and self-fulfilment. Respondents acknowledge that the status of working women is more favourable than a house-wife's in society.

On the whole we conclude, that there is a definite change in the existing traditional discussion of labour within the respondent's households in favour of a more egalitarian redistribution of domestic duties between husband and wife. Due to the help whether from husband, servant or kin support respondents were able to adjust well between their dual role simultaneously - hence reducing the extent of role conflict due to their two roles. Employment of respondents have favourable impact on their status within household, personality, independence and self-fulfilment and hence they give equal importance to their jobs in the event of conflict.

CHAPTER VIII

Male-Female Differentiation in the Labour Market Work Place

VIII.0 Introduction

Urban formal employment is generally perceived as the arena where the disparity between women and men in the development process can be observed. The picture portrayed by the existing literature, is that there is differential sex participation, with women found in only a fraction of the available diverse job possibilities and mainly in the low status, low skilled and low paid jobs. It is also found that women in general possess lower educational and professional qualifications, or they do not offer themselves for jobs because of social beliefs and taboos concerning their role in society. No doubt, such attitudes and beliefs are themselves products of discrimination on the part of society, but do not constitute direct discrimination by employers and male colleagues. Indirectly, these beliefs do influence the attitude of employers and male colleagues as they belong to the same society. In India, social values tend to relegate women to a secondary position. These conditions make it necessary to examine the issue of male female differentiation in labour market and work place.

With the objective of bringing out the radical differences between male and female employees in the labour market and the factors causing them, we selected 60 male workers as a 'control group'. Two male workers per establishment (30 in numbers) were selected on the basis of stratified random sampling technique. Further to analyse the view point of the employers' towards the female employees, we surveyed 30 employers covering all of the units.

We first discuss in this chapter the differences between men and women employees in terms of social characteristics. Then the sex inequalities at the workplace in terms of positions held, recruitment, pay and promotions and the related views of male and female employees and their employers are analysed to identify the main contributory factors to the observed sexinequality. Also discussed in this chapter are the patterns of work behaviour in terms of male and female employees, in particular absenteeism, punctuality and employers view on productivity and efficiency. The analysis further covers the differences in the male/female trade union participation, the main organ which acts as a catalyst for improving the condition of work.

VIII.1 Social Characteristics

VIII.1.1 Age : In the context of work organisation, age becomes relevant because for each job the minimum and maximum age for entry is predetermined. Table VIII.1 shows that in our sample, more women belong to the younger age groups, as the female's entry into the clerical cadre job is relatively recent as compared to males. A small proportion of the female respondents belonged to older generation as compared to males. Among these 8.27 per cent of females were in the age group of 45 and above whereas 28.3 per cent of males were in the same category. In the present sample, age

Table VIII.1 : Distribution of Male and Female Respondents by Age Groups

Age Group	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Below 25	29 (21.8)	11 (18.3)
25 - 35	64 (48.2)	14 (23.3)
35 - 45	29 (21.8)	18 (30.0)
45 and Above	11 (8.3)	17 (28.3)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)
Average Age	31.3	36.5

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

distribution is distributed across different age groups in the case of male employees whereas younger generation is a dominant group amongst the female respondents.

VIII.1.2 Religion : It is known that religion provides the ideological basis for the given status and institutionalised roles of a person in the society. As put by National Commission on Women, 1974 'social restrictions on women are derived from religious conceptions of women'. Thus it becomes relevant to probe this aspect for both male and female employees. Table VIII.2 reveals that the maximum number (63.3 per cent) of male workers are Hindu. Our study reveals that

Table VIII.2 : Distribution of Male and Female Respondents by Religion (Nos.)

Religion	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Hindu	102 (75.2)	38 (63.3)
Muslims	10 (7.5)	12 (25.0)
Sikh	12 (9.0)	7 (11.6)
Christian	8 (6.0)	2 (3.3)
Jain	1 (0.70)	-
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

both Hindu males and females are dominating in our sample. As far as Muslim community is concerned proportion of muslim men in our sample is much higher than muslim women, thus indicating that due to seclusion of women in Islam they are less educated and hence lag behind.

VIII.1.3 Caste : Caste system is a potent factor in influencing social values, attitudes and beliefs. It is related to the economic and cultural context of people. In the present sample (Table VIII.3) about half of the respondents belonged to Brahmin and Kshtriya (higher castes). Among these 50.0 per cent male and 36.3 per cent female employees are Brahmin and 8.0 per cent male and 10.0 per cent females are kshtriya. We observe, that more Brahmin and Kayastha males are in the work force compared to females indicating that perhaps these castes are more conservative whereas, higher proportion of Kshtriya, Bania and Khatri females are in the work force and show a very striking difference compared to males between Kshtriya and Bania males and females. These differences can be attributed to the fact that these castes being the business castes, men of these castes are absorbed in business. During the survey we did not come across any backward, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe respondents - thus implying that even though reservation policy is gaining currency still it has failed to reach this section of our population.

Table VIII.3 : Distribution of Male and Female Respondents by Caste
(Nos.)

Caste	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Brahmin	37 (36.3)	19 (50.0)
Kshtriya	10 (9.8)	3 (7.9)
Bannia	9 (8.8)	1 (2.6)
Kayastha	34 (33.3)	14 (36.8)
Khatri	12 (11.8)	1 (2.6)
Total	102 (100.0)	38 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

VIII.1.4 Educational Qualifications : Analysis of educational career is a necessary aspect to study the unequal participation of women in secretarial jobs. The major focus of the enquiry is to find out the men-women differences in the academic achievement as well as the status attainment in the field of employment thereafter. The study of educational career mainly revolves around the academic performance and subject choice of the men and women. The data pertaining to academic qualifications of the respondents are highlighted in Table VIII.4. Sex-wise distribution of data reveals that women respondents represent a better educational

Table VIII.4 : Distribution of Male and Female Respondents by Academic Qualifications

(Nos.)

Academic Qualification	Respondents	
	Female	Male
High School	4 (3.0)	4 (6.7)
Intermediate	12 (9.0)	8 (13.3)
Graduation	74 (55.6)	33 (55.0)
Post Graduation	43 (32.3)	15 (25.0)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

profile compared to their male counterparts. Proportion of women with higher qualification is larger - 2.3 per cent women are with post-graduate qualification as against only 25.0 per cent men with post graduate qualification. These better qualified females may be due to their younger age profile i.e. the younger females are coming with higher education and males being in the job for longer time and of older age and hence are less qualified. Proportion of graduates is the same (55.6 per cent for men and 55.0 per cent for women) for both men and women employees.

The distribution of data in Table VIII.5 shows that there exists a radical difference in the choice of

Table VIII.5 : Distribution of Respondents by Field of Study

(Nos.)

Field of Study	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Arts Group	116 (87.2)	11 (18.3)
Science Group	14 (10.5)	28 (46.7)
Commerce Group	2 (2.3)	21 (35.0)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

subjects by the men and women in our sample. It is seen that more women (87.2 per cent) had offered arts subject and only 10.5 per cent had offered science group, while men generally prefer science subjects (46.7 per cent) and commerce group (35.0 per cent). Only 18.3 per cent of male employees completed their education with arts subject. Here, a question may also arise regarding the reasons for offering science and arts subjects. This data reflects upon the differences in the educational pattern for the girl child. The social values are well reflected by the fact that science and commerce - job oriented groups are dominated by males and females themselves offer arts subjects due to existing social taboos. This pattern of education also reflects upon

the parents preferences about the education of the girl child. Studies by Rosen and Aneshensel (1978), Bardwick (1971), Hoffman (1972), Maccoby and Jacklive (1974) show that 'socialised men and women learn to aspire to positions conventionally allocated to them in the occupation structure' thus reflecting upon our values.

In the present study data (Table VIII.6) concerning the vocational and on-the-job training reveals that higher proportion of male respondents are with vocational training (66.7 per cent) as well as on-the-job training (80.0 per cent) as compared to women's proportion of 31.6 and 6.7 per cent respectively. Most of the men (38.3 per cent) are availing the departmental training facilities whereas only 2.2 per cent of women reported getting privilege of such training. In all the categories of training we find that the proportion of male respondents with training is higher than the women respondents, thus highlighting that males are much ahead of females. Training being the main motivating factor for higher paid jobs is acquired to lesser extent by females and hence they are less represented in higher paid jobs and are relegated to low paid jobs such as typist, lower division clerks, clerks, etc. The radical difference in on-the-job training between male and female employees is because age and longer period of services of male employees. Males being in the services

Table VIII.6 : Distribution of Respondents Having Vocational and On-the-Job Training

(Nos.)

Type of Training	Vocational Training =====		On-the-Job Training =====	
	Female Respon- dents	Male Respon- dents	Female Respon- dents	Male Respon- dents
Steno	11 (8.3)	8 (13.3)	-	2 (3.3)
Typist	10 (7.5)	14 (23.3)	1 (0.7)	8 (13.3)
Data Punching	3 (2.2)	9 (15.0)	1 (0.7)	9 (15.0)
Secretarial Practice	11 (8.3)	-	-	-
Telex/ Teleprinter	3 (2.2)	6 (10.0)	1 (0.7)	3 (5.0)
PABX/PNT/ Telephone Operator	4 (3.0)	3 (5.0)	3 (2.2)	3 (5.0)
Departmental Training	-	-	3 (2.2)	23 (38.3)
Total with Training	42 (31.6)	40 (66.7)	9 (6.7)	48 (80.0)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

for a longer time get the facility of training, while, females being the recent and young entrants are neglected.

VIII.2. Occupational Career

The study of occupational career highlights the process of recruitment, the nature of work organisation and work activity, the length of service, job changes, etc.

VIII.2.1 Age at Joining Work : In order to understand the age at which the respondents have joined their career, the average age at entry for both male as well as female employees has been computed. Table VIII.7 shows that the age of entry for females is lower (22.9

Table VIII.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Age at Joining Work
(Nos.)

Age-Groups	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Below 21	37 (21.8)	4 (6.7)
21 - 23	33 (24.8)	6 (10.0)
23 - 25	22 (16.5)	8 (13.3)
25 - 27	12 (9.0)	22 (36.7)
27 - 29	6 (4.5)	13 (21.7)
29 and Above	23 (17.3)	7 (11.7)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)
Average Age at Entry (Years)	22.9	25.8

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

years) than the male age at entry (25.8 years). This shows that women join the work force soon after completing education whereas for males the higher age may be due to discontinuity in their educational career or shift from one subject field to another. On the contrary women seem to have maintained unilinear educational career sticking to one subject field with fewer discontinuities. For males clerical jobs are less preferred and after completing education they compete here and there for better jobs and after obtaining failure elsewhere they join this less preferred cadre. A striking feature is that more females are found in 29 and above category thus reflecting upon the fact that due to economic compulsion after the death of their husbands they had joined the workforce so late.

VIII.2.2 Length of Service

Length of service is one criteria for determining the professional status in the work organisation. In government organisations and public sector undertakings, seniority in service is calculated by the length of service in the same cadre and subsequently promotions are made. Length of service decides the amount of salary one receives as annual increments are based on it. Further, it indicates the experience and achievements of the incumbents in the job. As the time passes, not only upward mobility in career occurs but

the achievement and recognition of the individual increases depending upon the relative performance of the individuals.

Table VIII.8 shows the data regarding the length of service. It reveals that there are striking differences between men and women employees. The male respondents have put in longer period of service in comparison to their female counterparts who are new entrants to the world of work. The shorter duration of women's service

Table VIII.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Duration of Service (Nos.)

Years	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Below 5	48 (36.1)	4 (6.7)
5 - 10	44 (33.1)	7 (11.7)
10 - 15	23 (17.3)	8 (13.3)
15 - 20	7 (5.3)	15 (25.0)
20 - 25	6 (4.5)	7 (11.7)
25 - 30	3 (2.2)	5 (8.3)
30 and Above	2 (1.5)	14 (23.3)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)
Average Age	7.6	14.4

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

indicates not only their recent entry in the clerical cadre jobs but also points out that they possess lower position in the job hierarchy and hence earn lower salary. On the contrary the men are better placed and earn well due to longer length of service.

VIII.2.3 Career Mobility : The occupational career of an individual in present day society is never linear, rather it assumes multiple dimensions across time and space. One may start his/her career at a junior level in occupational hierarchy and may end at the top position in same occupation. On the otherside, one may start with one job and may switch over to some other job. Thus career mobility assumes inter and intra occupational dimensions. Hence to study this aspect certain parameters have been examined viz., number of job changes and reasons for job changes.

VIII.2.3.1 Number of Job Changes : Table VIII.9 reveals a striking feature that more men than women have experienced changes in their job positions. 82.7 per cent of women employees were stable in one job without any change whereas 80 per cent of men employees have experienced changes in their job from one to another. We find that not only have men experienced more shifts in their careers, but also the number of shifts in job positions is higher among men than among women. This shows a striking feature about female work force in the

Table VIII.9 : Distribution of Respondents According to Job Changes

(Nos.)

Respondents	No Change	One Change	Two Changes	Three & More Changes	Total
Male	110 (82.7)	16 (12.0)	5 (3.7)	2 (1.5)	133 (100.0)
Female	12 (20.0)	18 (30.0)	22 (36.7)	8 (13.3)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

labour market i.e. female work force is more stable. This stability may be due to higher level of satisfaction and differences in ambition of females. Females considered to be secondary earner and hence whatever they earn is sufficient to supplement the family income. Male workers, being the main bread winner, have to face the economic pressure to earn livelihood for himself and his family. This drives him to seek better jobs and hence more changes in jobs are experienced.

VIII.2.3.2 Reasons for Leaving the Previous Job :

Enquiring further the respondents were asked to state the reasons which forced them to leave their previous jobs. It may be seen from Table VIII.10 that maximum

Table VIII.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons Assigned for Job Changes

(Nos.)

Reasons	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Better Prospects	18 (51.4)	28 (48.3)
Transfer of Spouse	5 (14.3)	-
Conflict with Superior	-	5 (8.6)
Promotion	9 (25.7)	20 (34.5)
Any Other	3 (8.6)	5 (8.6)
Total	133 (100.00)	60 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

proportion of men (48.3 per cent) and women (51.4 per cent) respondents changed jobs from one to another due to better prospects i.e. they have left their previous jobs because of its temporary nature or low salary and got more secure and well paid jobs. The reason that job changes occurred due to transfer of spouse were reported by only women respondents, whereas only men respondents reported conflict with superior as the reason for leaving previous jobs. Absence of conflict with superiors in case of female employees highlight their

docile nature. Hence we find that our female workers are more stable and more docile.

VIII.2.3.3 Methods of Recruitment in the Present Job :

In present day society one's entrance into a job has become a complex phenomenon. Apart from the requirement of the job and qualification and capabilities of an individual, many other factors influence the recruitment process. Sometimes personal contacts, at other times caste and community affiliations, acquaintance with influential government officials does affect the recruitment process.

From Table VIII.11 we find that majority of female respondents (42.1 per cent) reported getting job through Employment Exchange whereas maximum (45.0 per cent) percentage of male respondents got job through advertisement. Acquaintances helped 30.0 per cent of male respondents to get job whereas only 12.0 per cent of females got job through this media. There were 15.0 per cent respondents - (both male and female) who got it on sympathetic grounds i.e. after husband or fathers death. It is interesting to find that for female's formal channels of recruitment i.e. employment exchange and advertisement are important. Males mobility in society is more and hence they are able to exploit their contacts as 30 per cent of them have got their jobs through friends and relatives.

Table VIII.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to Method of Recruitment
(Nos.)

Method	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Employment Exchange	56 (42.1)	3 (5.0)
Advertisement	34 (25.6)	27 (45.0)
Friends/Relatives	16 (12.0)	18 (30.0)
After Husband/ Father's Death	21 (15.7)	9 (15.0)
Other Methods	6 (4.5)	2 (3.3)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

VIII.2.3.4 Differences in Leave Taking : Table VIII.12 reveals that the employers' complaint that female employees take leaves more often does not fit in our study. We find that our female respondents took 33 days of average leaves whereas male respondents took 35 days of average leaves. It is seen that male respondents are availing on an average 12 days of casual leave, 28 days of medical, 45 days of long leave and 18 days of leave without pay. On the other hand, female respondents are availing on an average 11 days of casual leave, 34 days of medical, 60 days of long leave and 5 days of leave without pay.

Table VIII.12 : Distribution of Respondents by Details of Leaves in the Past One Year
(In Days)

Leave	Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
	Average No. of Days	Proportion of Respondents Avoiding Leave to Total Respondents	Average No. of Days	Proportion of Respondents Avoiding Leave to Total Respondents
Casual	11 (13)	97.7	12 (60)	100.00
Medical	34 (59)	44.4	28 (39)	65.00
Long Leave	60 (17)	12.6	45 (3)	5.00
Leave Without Pay	5 (1)	0.7	18 (8)	13.0
Average Days of Leave Respondents	33		35	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote total respondents availing leave.

VIII.2.4 Job Selection and Job Satisfaction

Unequal participation and discrimination against women can be understood from various dimensions. One of the dimensions of unequal participation of women is the reason for job selection and the level of satisfaction obtained from pursuing a job. Job selection and satisfaction are two important facets of the

occupational career. Therefore, analysis of factors such as process of selection, motivating factors, reason for selecting, job preference will bring out the radical differences between male and female employees.

VIII.2.4.1 Reasons for Job Selection

Reasons for selecting a career for men and women differ significantly. Economic need has been repeatedly cited as the prime factor impelling women to join the work force (Sobol, 1963; Resenfeld and Perella, 1965; Weller, 1968; Nath, 1968; Gordon, 1979). Women have also been stated as 'secondary bread winners' in the family. If the male earner's income is sufficiently high they need not augment the family income, but if the wages are low, women's earning become imperative for the family (Sethi, 1976; Gordon, 1979; Raju, 1981).

Radical male-female differences exist in the reason for the selection of career in the labour market. Although the economic reason has been the prime factor for both men and women to join the workforce, yet the economic motives differ for men and women.

The data in Table VIII.13 shows entirely different motives of men and women in pursuing a career. Whereas, above seventy per cent men are in the workforce to eke out a living, most women (42.1 per cent) have taken up

Table VIII.13 : Distribution of Respondents By Factors Motivating Them to Take a Job

Factors	(Nos.)	
	Respondents	
	Female	Male
To Supplement Family Income	56 (42.1)	5 (8.3)
To have better Standard of Living	20 (15.0)	6 (10.0)
To use Educational Qualifications	41 (30.8)	2 (3.3)
To Use Spare Time	11 (8.3)	—
To have Social Interaction	3 (2.2)	—
To be Economically Independent	2 (1.5)	4 (6.7)
To Earn Livelihood	—	43 (71.7)
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

the job to supplement the family income. This can be explained by the fact that the economic pressure of earning bread for the family leaves men with no alternative other than to select a career whereas female understood from time immemorial as secondary earner are required to supplement and support the prime income.

Increase in education has led 30.0 per cent of our females to join the labour force to use their educational qualification whereas only 3 per cent of males are reported to pursue a career for using educational qualification. None of the male respondents are seen selecting the present job with the motive to use spare time or to have social interaction, whereas about 10 per cent females are seen to express these motives, thus reflecting upon the fact that with male earner in the household, women have less of economic pressure to take a job.

VIII.2.4.2 Factors Affecting Job Preference : Many factors may contribute to the choice of a particular job. The data collected in this regard as shown in Table VIII.14 reveals significant differences in male-female factors that affect their choice in job. Bright career prospects is the dominant factor that influences by and large equal proportion of male and female respondents. A very striking difference occurs in the motivations of male and female respondents who are guided by the level of earnings. Much higher proportion of men are influenced by the level of earnings thus reflecting once again that being the main earner in the family men have to pay heed to the earnings that will accrue by their selecting a job, whereas only 11.3 per cent of female respondents are influenced by the level

Table VIII.14 : Factors Affecting Job Preference

(Nos.)

Factors	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Convenient Timings	22 (16.5)	4 (6.7)
Non-Transferability	18 (13.5)	2 (3.3)
Less Need of Travelling	4 (3.0)	6 (10.0)
Suitable Distance from Home	5 (3.7)	3 (3.3)
Level of Earnings	15 (11.3)	20 (33.3)
Bright Career Prospects	60 (45.1)	26 (43.3)
Should be Approved by Husband/Father	7 (5.3)	-
Total	133 (100.0)	60 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

of earnings as they are only supplementing the main earnings, thus reasserting our finding before. None of the male respondents claimed that in their selection of a job its approval by father is necessary whereas 5.3 per cent of women respondents said that this is a necessary pre-requisite in their selection of a job, thus highlighting existence of male domination in the family. The difference in the motivational factor between men and women employees supports our hypotheses that women's job preference are guided by factors like

convenient timing, better prospects and non-transferability.

VIII.2.4.3 Job Satisfaction

Present section aims at assessing the differences in the level of satisfaction that men and women employees attain. It is seen that in some organisations the same job position may distribute unequal facilities

Table VIII.15 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Level of Job Satisfaction (Nos.)

Aspects of Job Satisfaction	Female Respondents			Male Respondents		
	Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Indifferent	Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Indifferent
Remuneration	79 (59.4)	46 (34.6)	8 (6.0)	42 (70.0)	8 (13.3)	10 (16.7)
Suitable Working Hours	118 (88.7)	13 (9.8)	2 (1.5)	38 (63.3)	11 (18.3)	11 (18.3)
Promotion	62 (46.6)	52 (39.1)	19 (14.3)	29 (48.3)	27 (45.0)	4 (6.7)
Security of Services	102 (76.7)	26 (19.5)	5 (3.7)	47 (78.3)	4 (6.7)	9 (15.0)
Provision of Maternity Benefits/Leaves	75 (56.4)	17 (12.8)	41 (30.8)	NA	NA	NA
Decision Making	71 (53.4)	35 (26.3)	27 (20.3)	38 (63.3)	9 (15.0)	13 (21.7)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.
NA : Not applicable.

and benefits to its incumbents. As for example, there are work organisations which give differential treatment to men and women employees occupying the same job positions in matters of salary, placement, promotion, transfer, etc. Table VIII.15 highlights these issues. One of the prime factors which affect the job satisfaction of a worker in various ways is related to working hours. On the one hand, it may interfere with the domestic responsibilities of the individual, especially married females, and on the other hand it may interfere with individual's social obligations. By and large both men and women employees are satisfied by the working hours due to the fixed timings in their organisations.

A higher proportion of men were found to be satisfied as compared to women with the remuneration they receive. The dissatisfaction of women employees is due to their presence in the lower rung of the labour market. Being new entrants, less trained and less experienced they are low paid workers and dissatisfied by what they get. On the promotional front we find that around 45.0 per cent of the male respondents were dissatisfied by the promotional process. With regard to decision making the table reveals that higher proportion of men felt satisfied as compared to women respondents. We find that in view of differences in motivational factors promotion and decision making are more important

for men. As men are earning to eke out a livelihood, for them promotion means better earnings and this helps them to sustain better life for their family. As male occupies the primary position in the household and women the secondary position women do not find themselves involved in decision making and same is reflected in their attitude on decision making in the labour market.

VIII.2.5 Trade Union Participation : Membership and Extent : Participation in union activities is instrumental in matters of removing grievances between worker and management. Male participation in trade union is an age old phenomenon but female participation

Table VIII.16 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Extent of Participation in Union Activities

(Nos.)

Extent of Frequency of Participation	Respondents	
	Female	Male
Per cent of Members to Total Respondents	54.8	88.4
<u>Frequency of Participation</u>		
(i) Occassionally	16 (21.9)	5 (9.4)
(ii) Usually	15 (20.5)	15 (28.3)
(iii) Regular	15 (20.5)	30 (56.6)
(iv) Not at all	28 (38.3)	3 (5.7)
Total	73 (100.00)	53 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

is not widely accepted. Table VIII.16 shows the differential participation rate of male-female employees. The table reveals that 88.4 per cent of men respondents were member of the respective trade unions of their organisation. Compared to this women respondents participation rate is very low i.e. 54.8 per cent.

Not only differences in participation rates between men and women employees exist but also differences in the extent of participation can be seen. Table VIII.16 reveals that for 56.6 per cent of men employees participation in union activities is a regular feature, whereas only 20.5 per cent of women respondents are regular participants. 38.3 per cent of women employees never attended the union meetings as compared to only 5.7 per cent of respondents. 20.8 per cent of men and 20.5 per cent of women respondents were attending union activities on a usual basis. 21.9 per cent of women were occasional activists. Therefore, we find that men respondents were more active in union activities as compared to the women respondents. Domestic obligations, social taboos and family disapproval are the major factors which affect women participation in union activities.

VIII.3 Employers Perception and Sex Segregation in Employment

Employer's perception becomes important in understanding the existence of stereotype roles for women and why women and men employees are considered different. To assess the extent of existence of employer's bias a need was felt to survey employers as well. Thus we selected 30 employers from each of the 30 establishments surveyed.

Employers attitude is one of the important indicator of women's low share in employment besides women's own neglect to go out and work. The employers' answers to a multiple choice question concerning the reasons for small proportion of women in the work force is given in Table VIII.17. The responses indicate the basic cultural values behind the employers' bias against women. 66.7 per cent of employers said that women have too many household responsibilities. Women employment is low in spite of the fact that only a few employers (16.6 per cent) felt that women do not have the required capabilities. A fair number (46.7 per cent) of employers mentioned a general preference for men as employees as a reason for the low share of women in employment. Thus it looks that employer's perception about women employee is a significant factor in lowering the proportion of women employees in the workforce. We

Table VIII.17 : Reasons for Small Proportion of Women in Employment, as Assessed by Sample Employers

Reasons	Employers Agreeing	Employers Not Agreeing	Total
Women do not have necessary capabilities	5 (16.6)	25 (83.3)	30 (100.0)
Women themselves do not come forward to work	18 (60.0)	12 (40.0)	30 (100.0)
Women have too many household responsibilities	20 (66.7)	10 (33.3)	30 (100.0)
Non-Employment of female is rather natural in view of the general lack of jobs even for men	10 (33.3)	20 (66.7)	30 (100.0)
Employers prefer men as employee	14 (46.7)	16 (53.3)	30 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

find that in aggregate male employee gets preference over a female in employment.

Such a preference for male workers could possibly be based upon an assessment of the relative cost of employing male and female workers. This is well reflected in wages, conditions of work and benefits offered. So far wages are concerned, we find that women are paid equal to their male counterparts. Questions regarding required difference in the conditions of work and benefits offered were also asked from the employers.

and benefits offered were also asked from the employers. We find from Table VIII.18 that 60 per cent employers felt that they had to make special arrangement in allocation of work for female employees. They have to allocate strenuous work, travelling job, work requiring decision making etc. to male employees keeping in mind the physical drawback and dual responsibilities of female employees. The perception of 40 per cent employers regarding adjustment of hours of work for their female employees is contradictory to the finding that hours of work are fixed except in few private sector

Table VIII.18 : Employer's Perception on Required Difference in Working Conditions for Female Worker

Aspect of Work	Employers Agreeing	Employers Disagreeing	Total
Hours of Work	12 (40.0)	18 (60.0)	30 (100.0)
Allocation of Work	18 (60.0)	12 (40.0)	30 (100.0)
Leave of Absence	8 (26.7)	22 (72.6)	30 (100.0)
Social Security Benefits	14 (46.7)	16 (53.3)	30 (100.0)
Extra Cost Incurred	13 (43.3)	17 (56.7)	30 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages to total respondents.

cases where special provision are made for females and keeping them away from overtime and late evening duties. Another perception of employers based on traditional notion about females is that women takes more frequent leave of absence whereas our earlier finding that female respondents take lesser leaves as compared to male respondents contradicts this. Thus we can say that employers' perception are affected by the social mores and stereotype notions regarding female employees in the labour market. About half of the employer respondents said that special social security measures like maternity benefits had to be taken for the women employees. Except for social security benefit other items do not involve more cost but involve different work arrangements in case of women employees. Employers responses thus reveal the existence of discrimination against women is some degree.

Table VIII.19 shows some of the reasons for the restricted opportunities of women. Most employers considered women to be as suitable as men, although a minority thought women to be less suitable or even unsuitable for the secretarial jobs. The feeling that women were unsuitable for jobs was due to their physical drawback. The most frequent reason advanced by employers (86.7 per cent) was that women lack physical strength. Another 16.0 per cent of the employers felt that women lack the necessary skill and training required for

Table VIII.19 : Reasons Assigned for Unsuitability of Women for Working Outside Home

Reasons	Employers Agreeing	Employers Dis- agreeing	Total
Women lack physical strength	26 (86.7)	4 (13.3)	30 (100.0)
Women lack psychological attitude to perform tasks	11 (36.7)	19 (63.3)	30 (100.0)
Women lack skills and necessary training	5 (10.6)	25 (83.3)	30 (100.0)
Women are not regular and and take much more leaves as compared to men	17 (56.7)	13 (43.3)	30 (100.0)
Women are not particular about timings due to their household responsibilities	12 (40.0)	18 (60.0)	30 (100.0)
Problems of attitude of male colleagues/subordinates	18 (60.0)	12 (40.0)	30 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

performing the jobs which is due to our finding that women being recent entrants are neglected for on-the-job training and lag behind in vocational training due to built in bias in society. 56.7 per cent employers thought that women do take too many leaves of absence and due to their dual role do not keep regular hours of work required for the job, which is quite wrong because we find that our female respondents have stated to have

taken lesser number of leaves as compared to male respondents. The problem of attitude of male colleagues and subordinates was mentioned by a fair number (60.0 per cent) of employer respondents.

When enquired about reasons for preferring men multiple responses were obtained. The most important reason given by 60.0 per cent of the employers to prefer men over women as employees was that men take lesser leaves, which is not true i.e. our men respondents have availed much more leaves compared to female respondents. 56.7 per cent mentioned that no separate provision of

Table VIII.20 : Reasons for Preference of Male Workers

Reasons	Employers Agreeing	Employers Dis- agreeing	Total
Lower turnover of men wrkers	2 (6.7)	28 (93.3)	30 (100.0)
Less prequent leave taken	18 (36.7)	12 (40.0)	30 (100.0)
Higher productivity than Women	14 (46.7)	16 (53.3)	30 (100.0)
No problem of attitude other employees	7 (23.4)	23 (76.7)	30 (100.0)
No special requirement of administration	6 (20.0)	24 (80.0)	30 (100.0)
Separate provision of extrs facilities not required	17 (56.7)	13 (43.3)	30 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

extra facilities ~~are~~ required (Table VIII.20). 46.7 per cent gave higher productivity of men as the reason for their preference and 23.4 per cent preferred men as employees for the reason of the attitude of other employees and 20.0 per cent felt that no special requirement of administration is needed with the employment of men as employees. A few felt that men should be employed because of lower turnover than women.

At the same time some employers preferred to employ women in the secretarial cadre. Table VIII.21 shows that 40 per cent employers prefer women in these jobs for the reason of better devotion to work and 36.7 per cent felt easier personnel administration as the main reason for preferring women, once again reaffirming our finding that female employees are docile in nature. In private sector establishments customers attraction was the reason assigned for employer's preference for women as employee. Women are preferred for the reason of higher efficiency by 26.7 per cent of employers.

Thus, we can say that our employer respondent's perceptions are based on the built in bias in the labour market and are contradictory to our findings about male and female employees. In spite of female respondents stability in the labour market, better qualification, docile nature, less leave taking attitude, employers bias operates and hinders their path of success. The

Table VIII.21 : Reasons for Preference of Women

Reasons	Employers Agreeing	Employers Not agreeing	Total
Higher efficiency	8 (26.7)	22 (73.3)	30 (100.0)
Better devotion to work	14 (40.0)	16 (60.0)	30 (100.0)
Easier personnel administration	14 (40.0)	16 (60.0)	30 (100.0)
Customers attraction	10 (33.3)	20 (66.7)	30 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

employers' notion about female employees needs a drastic change so that women in secretarial cadres may improve their position.

VIII.4 Conclusion

Our study shows that women's entry into the work force is a recent phenomenon and hence we see that more women belong to younger age groups whereas men are well represented in all the age groups. Hindu religion is dominant religion for both men and women respondents. Due to seclusion of women in Islam Muslim females are less educated and only few Muslim females are present in

our sample, whereas, the proportion of muslim men is higher. Both backward and schedule caste and tribe men and women are completely absent from our sample which shows that inspite of the reservation policies these castes still need special attention. Sex wise distribution of data on educational career reveals that women show better educational profile compared to men, because of their younger age profile. But in the field of vocational and on-the-job training proportion of men is higher than that of women. This educational differences show that the educational pattern of girl child in our society is different to that of the male child. Science and commerce the 'job oriented' groups absorb more males, thus reflecting the social value system. On-the-job training is basically preferred for men because of their longer period of service.

Further, the analysis of occupational career shows that age of joining for women is lower than for the men employees which means women follow unilinear educational pattern. For men clerical jobs are less preferred and after completing education they look avenues of better jobs and hence complete but after failure elsewhere lead them to the clerical arena. Length of service data reveals that men respondents have put in longer period of service in comparison to their women counterparts. 82.7 per cent of women employees show stability in their career with one job whereas 80 per cent of men have

experienced number of changes and the dominant reason for such changes is better career prospects. Besides stability females are more domicile. None of the female respondents showed any conflict with superiors as the reason for leaving job. The study of the methods of recruitment reflects that formal methods of recruitment i.e. advertisement and employment exchange for women are the main media for getting job, whereas more men get jobs their informal channels pointing towards greater male mobility within the society whereas women are restricted and hence their contacts are less. The social acceptance of the belief that women take more leave is proved wrong. Rather our finding is that men employees have taken more leaves than women respondents.

Analysis of job selection and satisfaction attained thereafter shows existence of considerable differences between men and women. The majority of men respondents have chosen their present job because they wanted to make their living, while most of the female respondents have chosen it to supplement their family income. Majority of men preferred jobs with better career prospects and level of earnings, though career prospect is also dominant amongst women respondents yet other factors like convenient timings, non-transferability, suitable distance from home to office, less-need of travelling also influence their job choice. The job satisfaction of men and women differs on various counts.

Dissatisfaction with the working hours has been found more pronounced among women, while satisfaction with working hours is more among men. Dis-satisfaction with decision making and promotion is relatively high among men than women. Dissatisfaction with remuneration, security of service is comparatively high among women.

Participation of women in trade union activities is low as compared to men respondents. It is also interesting to note that the women members are also not regular participants in union meetings and activities.

Further, employers perception on low share of women in employment highlight general preference for men as employees. Questions regarding the required differences in the conditions of work and benefits offered highlight that employers have to make special arrangement in allocation of work for female employers. Employers also felt that women take frequent leave of absence. This perception is completely based on the stereotype notion existing in the society because our finding is that the female respondents have taken less leaves compred to males. Among the reasons for the restricted opportunities for women physical drawbacks was the dominant factor advanced by employers. Multiple responses were obtained from employers regarding reasons for preferring men for jobs. Less leaves taken by men, no need for separate provision of extra facilities higher productivity of men were mentioned as the reasons

for their preference. On the other hand some employers showed their preference for women employees on the ground of better devotion and easier personnel administration.

To sum up, we may say that our female respondents are young, show stability in the labour market, are docile in nature, better qualified and take less leave. Yet they are facing employers' bias because employers perceptions are affected by the existing social mores and stereotype thinking about the role of women in society. The need today is to change the attitude of the society and the employers so that women may get equal opportunity to develop and contribute in different walks of life.

CHAPTER IX

Summary and Conclusion

IX.1 Objectives and Hypotheses

The present study of women secretarial workers in Lucknow city set out with the broad objectives of portraying the socio-economic characteristics and problems of women in white collar jobs, with particular focus on problems of labour market segregation and sex discrimination. It is a well known fact that due to various socio-cultural and economic reasons only a small proportion of women enter the labour force. The present study carries out an indepth analysis of the problems they face after having entered the labour market as job seekers and getting employed. Thus the study examines discrimination faced by women secretarial workers from employers and labour market institutions in the process of recruitment, promotion, earnings, work organisation, etc.

The study was conducted with following objectives :

1. To study the growth of women workers and changes in their occupational patterns in U.P. in general and Lucknow in particular.
2. The general socio-economic background of female workers in secretarial jobs in Lucknow.
3. To study the factors that influence the extent of participation and variations in women's employment in secretarial jobs both in private and public sector undertakings.

4. To observe the working conditions, earnings and problems faced during employment and the extent of participation in union activities and the level of job satisfaction achieved.
5. To study pre-entry discrimination in education, training for higher skills and post-entry discrimination such as promotion, wage differentials, employers' bias, etc.
6. To study the contributions of secretarial workers to household income and its impact on their status.
7. To study the extent of role conflict that the secretarial workers face in carrying out the dual role of wage earner and home maker.

The following hypotheses were formulated for examining during the study :

1. Economic need and rising educational levels are the main factors influencing female participation in the work force.
2. A major proportion of women secretarial workers belong to urban middle class families.
3. Differences in earnings are due to differences in education, experience and on the job training.
4. Discrimination in wages are more apparent in the private sector than in the public sector.
5. Job preferences of women are guided by factors like, level of earnings, attitude of husband/father, non-transferability, better prospects and retirement benefits.
6. Employers bias operates due to more absenteeism among female workers.
7. Opportunity of employment is same for both men and women in the public sector, at least legally.
8. The extent of female participation in trade union activity is low as compared to males.
9. With full-time job the secretarial workers are prone to experience role-conflict.

10. Being in the job has favourable impact on the economic and social status of women and their independence.

IX.2 Methodology

The study is based upon a sample survey of selected female workers in secretarial jobs both in the public and private sector in Lucknow urban. Technique of stratified random sampling was applied for selecting the sample. The sample was classified in three groups Central government, State government and Private (Act) establishments to find out the differences that exist particularly between public and private sectors. Data regarding establishments were collected from Directorate of Employment, Lucknow. In the first stage 10 establishments each - from Central government, State government and Private (Act) establishments were selected. In total 150 female workers i.e., 5 female workers per establishment were proposed to be selected but in total 133 employees could be contacted from the selected organisations at the time of survey. For comparative purposes a separate 'control group' of 60 male workers i.e., 2 male workers per establishment were randomly selected. To know the employers' perception regarding their employees, employers of each establishment were separately surveyed.

For the purpose of detailed analysis three sets of detailed questionnaires for women workers, male workers and employers* were prepared and each the selected respondents were interviewed personally during the period 1989-90.

IX.3 Chapter Scheme

In Chapter I the problems and status of women workers as highlighted by earlier studies covering the developed and the developing countries with particular focus on India are discussed. The objectives, hypotheses and methodology of the present study are also discussed. Chapter II focusses on the growth and occupational pattern of urban female workers in Lucknow district. Socio-economic and demographic background of the secretarial workers are discussed in Chapter III. Chapter IV throws light upon income and expenditure of the sampled respondents. Motivating factors and working conditions of secretarial workers are analysed in Chapter V. Various parameters to gauge the extent of discrimination by employers and male colleagues have been discussed in Chapter VI. This chapter also examines the level of job satisfaction. In Chapter VII domestic duties and the extent of husband's help, and the attitude of family members towards respondents career orientation are highlighted. Male-female differentiation in the labour-market and work-place

are highlighted in Chapter VIII. In the last chapter the conclusions are summarised. The major findings of study are summarised below.

IX.4 Growth and Occupational Structure of Female Workers

Going out to seek salaried employment is still an exceptional rather than common characteristic of female population in urban India. That is why we find a very low proportion of women in employment and the consequent predominance of men in most occupations. This state of affair is primarily a reflection of societal and economic parameters which tend to restrict the supply of female labour force. While these phenomena do reflect form of societal discrimination in relegating women into secondary jobs, and an element of segregation by adhering to the traditional sexual division of labour, but do not provide direct evidence of discrimination against women in the labour market.

Growth and occupational pattern of women workers in Lucknow district are highlighted in Chapter I. An important finding at the analysis is that female participation rates are abysmally low (6.9 as compared to male participation rate (46.3 per cent)). Further, it has been observed that there is a general decline in work force participation rate of total workers. The figures for 1981 show a general decline in FWPR in

Lucknow district except in case of female workers of Lucknow urban where a marginal increase over the decade 1971-81 is observed, from 3.56 per cent to 3.70 per cent. The trends observed for 1981-91 period are different as compared to the trends observed for the period 1971-81 in the case of female participation rates. Female participation in economic activity is more in urban areas due to the impact of education and urbanisation. In rural areas female participation increased in 1991 and this can be attributed to the difference in the definition of 'worker'. In 1991 the effort to net more women in the category of worker brought unpaid work on farm and family enterprises into the definition of work and hence increased their participation in rural areas. Even then the proportion of female in work force remains very low - (6.9 per cent in 1991).

In the situation of a overwhelmingly predominant male labour force, it is really very tedious to distinctly differentiate the pattern of segregation in the labour market. Overall dominance of the proportion of men in the total work force is reflected from the employment situation in Lucknow urban rather than the characteristic of large number of occupations being exclusively male preserve. Sectoral distribution of the work force clearly reflects a tendency of segregation in favour of tertiary sector. The chances of women being

absorbed in the primary sector was reduced in 1981, though it increased in the 1991 Census and this can be attributed to the effect of 1991 Census to net more women in the definition of 'work'. The manufacturing sector shows a decline in the proportion of female workers due to structural changes in industry through modernisation of technology which retrenches women workers as they lack adequate industrial training. Thus, in the employment structure in Lucknow city, a strong tendency of segregation is visible as the tertiary sector not only absorbs the highest proportion of women workers (83.2 per cent in 1991) but also shows the fastest growing segment in terms of women's employment. This expansion can be attributed to the increased level of education for women, increased economic pressure and expanding employment opportunities for women in the sector.

Clear occupational segregation is found to exist in non-agricultural work force in the city. Women are heavily concentrated in professional, clerical and sales occupations. Higher growth rate is observed by females in these categories. Clerical and Related Occupation has observed growth rate of 175.41 per cent during the decade 1971-81. Data regarding occupational classification was not available for 1991 at the time of the study. Hence our analysis is limited to 1971 and 1981. In clerical and related workers there is a clear

segregation of the labour market due to gender. Within the clerical and related workers category, some occupations which show a tendency of attracting larger than average proportion of women workers, as revealed by our data are : stenographers, clerks and typists, clerical and supervisor, book-keepers, cashiers and related workers, telephone and telegraph operators.

Another issue that is highlighted by the data is that clerical job of supervisory category - a higher grade job - have lower proportion of women than male workers. Clerical and related category have two third of all workers (male and female). Thus clear segregation is observed at the sectoral, occupational and intra-occupational level. However, with increase in education changes in attitudes occur resulting in increasing number of women entering the professional and male-dominated occupations in Lucknow city.

IX.5 Socio-Economic Background

The analysis of social characteristics reveals that religion strongly determines the phenomenon of women entering the work force. Looking into the data on religious background we found that a majority of our respondents belong to high caste Hindu families. Muslim females formed a small proportion of the total respondents in the labour market, though they form a

considerable proportion of the total population of Lucknow. Due to seclusion of women in Islam, spread of education amongst Muslim women is restricted and social taboos are stronger. Scheduled caste and backward caste respondents lack representation in our sample, thus highlighting the failure of reservation policy and existence of discriminatory social framework against them.

An analysis into the familial background of the women secretarial workers under study brought to light the fact that approximately 60.0 per cent of the household members of the respondents had graduation and above qualification. Therefore, higher educational background of the family is the prime factor for women to pursue a career. 55.6 per cent of respondents have done graduation and 32.3 per cent have obtained post-graduation degree. Almost 50 per cent of the respondents had acquired professional or vocational education and on-the-job training.

With regard to the employment and occupational status of the household members it was found that 52.7 per cent of the members are working. 66.1 per cent of the economically active members are in government service showing a close affinity between the career selected by respondents and that of household members. The theory of occupational consistency between the spouses is also substantiated by the present study.

IX.6 Parental Background

The analysis of the parental background of the respondents revealed that the respondents belong to small size families with good educational background. A close linkage is found between education and the size of family. It is observed that 64.5 per cent of the parental family members are graduates and post-graduates i.e., the respondents have a well educated parental background. Education of parents helps to increase the mental horizon and motivate their daughters to go for higher education and training and enter the world of work that had hitherto been the male domain. Employment status of female members of parental family indicate that a considerable number of them are employed. Thus, implying that female participation in labour force was well established in parental households of the respondents. The analysis highlights that most of the respondents belong to families where a majority of the members were in government jobs. It further reveals that the respondents' choice of profession is closely linked with that of her parental family's profession. A study of the income levels of parental household highlights that our respondents belong to urban middle class strata of society which is in consonance with our hypotheses.

IX.7 Demographic Characteristics

A look at demographic profile of our respondents reveals that women's entry into secretarial cadres is a relatively new phenomenon as bulk of our respondents are from younger age group, the average age being 31.3 years. Private sector respondents are relatively more recent entrants into the labour market. Analysis of marital status of the respondents shows that 43.6 per cent of the respondents are married and 42.9 per cent unmarried. Some 12.0 per cent of the respondents are widowed and joined the workforce after the death of their husbands. The number of divorcee and separated respondents is negligible showing that this phenomenon is still not accepted in the middle class families. Few young girls were in the arena of work forgoing their instinct to study due to the death of their father. Thus showing that government provision of employing one member of the family of the deceased is really helpful.

Our study reveals that a higher educational level and entry into economic activity tends to postpone marriage and thereby has a direct bearing on the number of children. The average number of children per married respondents comes out to be 1.8. Very few respondents reported having three children and the cases of four and more children were reported by respondents of older age-group. The study reveals the fact that with increase in education awareness regarding family planning comes

quiet naturally. Structure of family also determines the number of children. In recent period nuclear type families have emerged. Hence to reduce the burden of dual role respondents favour small family limiting it after second or third child. Attitudinal bias against female child is almost absent as 41.2 per cent of respondents had both male and female children. Proper spacing of children were maintained by married respondents.

IX.8 Income and Asset Ownership

The discussion in the chapter of income and expenditure was geared to find out the economic background of respondents. The pattern of income earned and asset ownership shows that mostly the respondents belong to middle income families. The average value of durable goods and assets possessed by secretarial worker's household is around Rs.1.2 lakh. Almost 90 per cent of the respondents reported possession of consumer durable items. Mechanisation of domestic work has become very common in urban households due to limited time at the disposal of housewives, being a dual responsibility bearer as our respondents are. Possession of some mode of conveyance was also reported by majority of respondents.

With regard to the analysis of the level of earnings of the respondents it was found that secretarial females monthly income was on average Rs.1773. Central government respondents earned more (Rs.2011.79) than those in State government (Rs.1908.56) and in the private sector (Rs.1294.71). Respondents in private sector of the labour market have a relatively lower level of earnings as they belonged to relatively younger age group and were recent entrants to the labour force. Also employer bias is operative against them due to gender, revealing the existence of discrimination in this sector. The findings were in consonance with our hypothesis that differences in earnings are due to differences in education, experience and on the job training. Thus, respondents with lower educational qualifications had lower average earnings and those having post-graduation degree had the highest average earning. The major source of income of our respondents in all the three categories is service. Almost a similar picture emerges while analysing the level of earnings and sources of income of other family members.

IX.9 Expenditure Pattern and Contribution to Household Expenditure

An analysis into the data of household expenditure shows that only one-third of the total expenditure is spent on food by the respondent's household in all the

three categories under study. This follows the familiar Engel's Law of Consumption and reflects upon the higher income levels of the respondents. Respondents living with parents contributed significantly, nearly one-third, to their families' total expenditure. One-fifth of the respondents, however, did not contribute to household expenditure at all. An important finding of our study is that all the married respondents contributed significantly to the total expenditure and 70 per cent contributed upto 50 per cent of the expenditure. This highlights the issue that today's educated working women share a proportionate burden of the family expenditure with their spouses, reaffirming that their earning is 'imperative' for the family to maintain a high standard.

IX.10 Motivating Factors and Job Preferences

Majority of the respondents had undergone vocational training with the prime desire to pursue a job. However, a few of them also reported personality development and academic interest as the motivating factors. We found that self-motivation rather than parental pressure is the predominant motivating factor. Similarly factors motivating respondents to pursue a career, reaffirms that self-motivation played an important role. Another characteristic of secretarial women revealed by our study tends to strongly support

the notion that women work due to economic compulsion i.e., need to supplement family income. Further, it is found that considerable number of respondents were very assertive and exercised their independent will in choosing a career though they emulated their family members especially father in selecting a career.

Level of earnings, bright career prospects and non-transferability were the major factors directing our respondents in choosing a job - thus corroborating our hypothesis regarding job preference. Attitude of family members towards different types of jobs shows that a fairly large number of families revealed their preference for jobs in government sector followed by teaching, clerical and administrative cadres.

IX.11 Job History and Level of Trade Unionism

Mostly our respondents had joined the workforce soon after educational career. A large number of private sector respondents had entered the job-market before the age of 21. Average age at joining employment market for our sample is 22.9 years. Average duration of service is 7.6 years. It was higher for respondents in government sector compared to those in private sector as public sector has been attracting females for longer duration, but now even private sector has started absorbing females in the workforce. Workforce stability exists in the labour market as only one-fifth of the

respondents had changed jobs. The major reason for job change over was 'better prospects' thus indicating that the respondents are interested in their career advancement. Job hopping is more pronounced in private sector due to unfavourable conditions of work. Lack of social security benefits, temporary nature of employment, low level of earnings, lack of better prospects are the reasons behind job changes. None of the respondents reported leaving job for child bearing.

Analysis of working conditions was carried out to highlight the differences in the working conditions in the public and the private sector. It is found that the respondents are primarily working in large male dominated organisations. The analysis helps us to conclude that the women secretarial workers of public sector were better placed in comparison with their counterparts in the private sector. The respondents working in the private sector were engaged in temporary capacity. Further, in public sector hours of work are officially fixed hence respondents follow the government rules of working 5-8 hours per day, whereas, there are no such norms laid down in the private sector hence working hours are not fixed, with late evening duties being reported by number of private sector respondents.

Similarly, the respondents in the public sector received all the basic allowances like house rent, city

compensatory allowance, medical allowance, . etc., however, private sector respondents except a few reported getting a consolidated salary. Contrary to the usual thinking that female workers take leaves very often our respondents availed on an average lesser leaves i.e., only casual leaves are fully availed and long and medical leaves are availed by few married respondents during pregnancy.

A probe into the level of unionisation amongst the secretarial workers show that about half of the respondents were members of different unions but their participation in union activity was almost negligible. Thus, union activities are not fully accepted by female workers, because of their dual responsibility. Besides this their family doesn't approve of such activities.

IX.12 Discrimination and Job Satisfaction

Around 60 per cent of the respondents agreed on the issue that social attitude of the society is discriminatory, though, less than one-third of the respondents did experience discrimination during childhood. Pre-entry discrimination in the form of unequal treatment at home i.e., pampering of male child, sending male child to a better school, denying higher education to girls, etc. were reported by a few respondents. Hence pre-entry discrimination in its subtle form does exist in our middle class families.

Though, by and large, a majority of respondents did not experience any discrimination at the time of recruitment in the form of employer's bias, some did face discrimination due to employer's perception about women's absenteeism specially in private sector. Employer's bias is more strongly operative in private sector compared to other two categories. The respondents work in male-dominated environment as a maximum number of them had mostly male co-workers and shared their room with a mixed group. Changed attitude of men as well as women is revealed by the fact that a high proportion of respondents have a very frequent interaction level. Attitude of male subordinates and superiors towards the female respondents reveals that attitudinal bias does exist in the work place though in a subtle form. Though so much progress is made to equate the status of the two sexes but still stereotype thinking prevails in the employment market and hence a considerable proportion of the respondents reported being still treated differently.

Job satisfaction was examined along six lines, i.e., remuneration, suitable working hours, promotion prospects, security of services, provision of maternity leaves and extent of decision making powers. Considerable proportion of our respondents reported being unsatisfied by remuneration they get as well as promotional process and decision making.

IX.13 Domestic Duties and Role Conflict

Significantly enough we note that our respondents get help from their husbands in domestic chores showing that traditional roles are modified as a result of the women's prolonged daily absence from home. Private sector respondents are seen depending on hired help to a large extent. A large proportion of respondents are helped by their family members in looking after their children. Attitude of family members towards respondents' job count much in their pursuit of carrier. Majority of respondents reported approval of their job by family members. This support of family members helps our respondents to restore the balance between office and domestic responsibilities.

The analysis of role conflict reveals that the respondents have adjusted favourably with their dual role in the work place and household due to the family support and the help from servants. Considerable proportion of the respondents reported that they are facing the problem of adjustment between their dual role. Private sector respondents reported that they had adjusted to a greater extent due to the reason that proportion of unmarried younger respondents is higher and hence they don't have to do much of the domestic chores, therefore they do not face the problem of combining the two roles. Besides this in the private

sector respondents' household we find more hired help is availed which ultimately reduces the burden of work and therefore reduces the occurrence of conflict.

IX.14 Impact of Job on the Status of Women

In the traditional joint family system, authority to decide about family matters was usually centralised but now due to the economic contribution of women they have a greater say in domestic affairs - breaking away from the traditional norms. Significant proportion of respondents reported having say on matters pertaining to decision making, purchase of durable goods, household expenditure etc. and their greater power to make decisions were attributed to their higher education, occupation and composition of the households.

There was perceptible change in the attitude of family members on issues relating to respect, obedience and seeking advice on critical matters from the respondents. Pursuit of a career by the respondents had a positive effect on their self-fulfilment and personality development. Their job has favourably affected the independent identity of these female respondents.

Opinion of respondents on the status of working women shows that they maintained a favourable attitude towards working women. This reflects the change in the

attitude of society. Acceptance of the working women in the society motivates them to feel that they are better off compared to non-working housewives.

IX.15 Male-Female Differentiation in the Labour Market and Workplace

The study of differences in the socio-economic characteristics between men and women employees in the employment market reveals that women's entry into secretarial cadres is a recent phenomenon as compared to men employees. More women respondents belong to younger age group whereas men are well represented in all the age groups. Sex-wise of data highlights that educationally women are more qualified but in the field of vocational training and on-the-job training the proportion of men is higher than women.

Looking into the data pertaining to occupational history we observe that age at joining work for women is lower than for men. This difference can be attributed to the fact that for men clerical jobs are less preferred and hence after failure in competitions elsewhere for better jobs they land into the clerical arena. Men employees reported longer duration of service compared to women employees which reaffirms the fact that work arena absorbed men since long but women's entry has been a recent phenomenon. Women respondents showed high stability in the job whereas 80 per cent men

have indulged in job hopping. The belief that women take leave more frequently than men was proved wrong by our study.

Considerable difference was found in mode of job selection and job satisfaction among the two categories. Majority of men respondents were in the workforce to earn their livelihood, while for women the motive of supplementing the family income was more important. Job preference for women respondents was guided by factors such as better prospects, convenient timings, non-transferability, suitable distance from home to office whereas men respondents pay heed only to better prospects and level of earning in selecting a job. Satisfaction with working hours was more pronounced among men while women expressed their dissatisfaction on this count, perhaps due to the burden of dual roles. A higher proportion of men were found to be satisfied as compared to women with the remuneration they receive. The dissatisfaction of women employees is due to their presence in the lower rung of the labour market. Being new entrants, less trained and less experienced they are low paid workers and dissatisfied by what they get. About one-sixth of the male respondents were dissatisfied by the promotional process. As men are earning to eke out a livelihood, for them promotion means better earnings and this helps them to sustain better life for their family. Still, women do not find

themselves fully involved in decision making within household due to their secondary position, which is reflected in their attitude on decision making in the labour market.

Level of unionisation is reported to be low amongst women respondents as compared to male employees. Female participation in such activities is not accepted within our society and hence family members do not approve of our respondents' participation in trade union. Due to male pressure in the workplace our respondents have enrolled as members but due to the burden of dual role and family's disapproval they are not actively involved in union activities. Both ways men are seen dominating females.

Employers perception on low share of women in the workforce was guided by the stereotype notion there is general preference for men based on relative cost of employing the two categories. This is well reflected in wages, conditions of work and benefits offered. Employers generally felt that they had to make special arrangement in allocation of work for female employees. They have to allocate strenuous work, travelling job, work requiring decision making, etc. to male employees keeping in mind the physical drawback and dual responsibilities of female employees. Another aspect of bias fully drenched in stereotype perception is that women take more frequent leave of absence whereas our

finding is that female respondents take lesser leave as compared to male respondents. Our hypothesis that employer's bias operates due to absenteeism amongst female employees is corroborated here and reflects that such stereotype thinking is based on misconception rather than facts. Thus we can say that employers perception are affected by the social moores and stereotype motions regarding female employees in the labour market.

IX.16 Summing Up

Summing up the findings of the study we can say that our respondents are young, educated, career oriented and self motivated. Their presence in secretarial career is highly favourable for their status in the workplace as well as within the household and thereby in the society. Being in the work force boosts the morale of women and helps in personality development and independence. A significant attitudinal change is also observed even in male workers. In the government organisations there is no male female difference in salary levels. But in the private sector lesser earnings by female employees were reported. A high level of job satisfaction is reported by our workers. Due to the emergence of egalitarian division of labour and usage of electrical appliances the problem of role conflict is minimised and maintenance of a balance

between dual role of wife and worker is observed. Husbands' support in domestic chores, family members support in looking after young children, and children's acceptance of working mothers are really helpful in this context.

The problems that secretarial women face include the job segregation, employers' bias and subtle discrimination all based on stereotype perception regarding females in the labour market. Discrimination in the public sector is not observed due to the existence of rules and regulations but attitudinal bias and discrimination are still operative among the officials. In the private sector also employers' bias to exist. Strong regulations are, therefore, required to improve the conditions of women even in the organised sector particularly in case of the private sector.

Efforts are required to raise women's employment in the labour market besides providing favourable conditions of work. Provision of creches near the place of work will further enhance convenience of working women, besides providing maternity leave and other benefits especially in private sector where flexibility in norms laid down is observed. Unionisation should be encouraged among women workers in private and public sector to fight for the redressal of the problems of working women. The government should not only pass

laws but strict vigil should also be maintained to see that they are actually implemented and help in improving the environment for women workers.

Though the social attitudes and moores are changing but some stereotype views and biases thinking still exist. Our study reveals that these perceptions regarding working females are completely based upon misconception rather than on facts. These misconception need to be removed. Attitudinal change is also required at the family level so that the female child is not discriminated against. Female education and vocational training should be encouraged to upgrade their skills and status.

Finally, women's own attitude to education and employment needs to be changed. They should not look upon their work only as subsidiary and supplementary to man's work. In the work place they should come forward to take all responsibilities on their shoulders at an equal footing with their male counterparts. Women should also come forward to participate in trade union activities and should not try to maintain separate and distinct identity. It is hoped with increase in education and greater participation in economic activity those attitudinal changes will be brought about, which will allow women the opportunity for self fulfilment which contributing to societal development.

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QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR FEMALES

I. GENERAL BACKGROUND:

1. Name : _____

2. Address : _____

3. Age : _____

4. Religion _____

5. Caste : _____

6. (a) Married Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) Unmarried Yes ☐ No ☐

7. Number of Children:

Sl.No.	Sex	Age	Class	School
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

8. Are you living with:

Your parents ☐ In-laws ☐ On your own ☐

9. Family structure at present (if married):

Sl. No.	Relation	Age	Sex	Education		Occupation	Income
				General	Technical		
1.							
2.							
3.							
4.							
5.							
6.							

10. Family structure of your parents:

Sl No	Relation	Age	Sex	Education		Occupat- ion	Income
				General	Technical		
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							

11. Educational Qualifications:

(a) What is your educational qualification?

Class	Year	Institution/ University	Division	Group (Art/Science)
High School				
Intermediate				
Graduate				
Post-Graduate				
Other				

(b) Have you got any professional/vocational training?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, give details:

	Particulars	Insti- tution	Duration	Any other Remark
Professional (i)				
Training (ii)				
Vocational (i)				
training (ii)				

12. Was your education interrupted at any stage, if so, give reasons:

- (a) Parents were against higher education for girls ☐
- (b) Parents couldn't afford higher education ☐
- (c) Economic necessity forced you to take up job ☐
- (d) Ill-health ☐
- (e) Any other (specify) ☐

13. A. Did your parents treat differently male and female children in terms of education?

Yes ☐ No ☐

B. If yes, how?

- (a) Male child was given better education ☐
- (b) Male child was allowed to go to a better School at a distance ☐
- (c) Male child was given greater encouragement to devote more time to study ☐
- (d) Male child had the privilege of higher education which was denied to you ☐
- (e) Being a girl you were bound to share in domestic work much more ☐

14. Whether any female among your close relations in your parental family was employed, if so give details:

Sl.No.	Relation	Occupation	Salary per month
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

II. MOTIVATION AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS WORK:

15. What is your parents attitude towards the service of a female:

	Favourable	Unfavourable	Indifferent
Father			
Mother			

16. What is the attitude of your in-laws towards the service of a female?

	Favourable	Unfavourable	Indifferent
Father-in-law			
Mother-in-law			

17. If the attitude of your family members is unfavourable what are the reasons? (rank accordingly)

- (a) Family income is sufficient ☐
- (b) Women should not work outside their homes ☐
- (c) No other female has worked before ☐
- (d) Social environment is not favourable ☐
- (e) Female workers are harassed/maltreated/exploited ☐

18. Are your family members in favour/not in favour of certain types of jobs? if so, specify:

Job type	Favour	Not in favour
(a) Teaching		
(b) Clerical/Secretarial		
(c) Administrative		
(d) Jobs in business companies		
(e) Government jobs		
(f) Travelling jobs		
(g) Sales girls		
(h) In males dominated organisations		
(i) Full time jobs		
(j) Any other (specify)		

19. (i) If you took up job before marriage was it on:

- (a) your initiative Yes ☐ No ☐
 (b) your parents initiative Yes ☐ No ☐
 (c) with mutual consent Yes ☐ No ☐
 (d) against the wishes of your parents Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If you took up job after marriage was it on:

- (a) your own initiative Yes ☐ No ☐
 (b) your husbands initiative Yes ☐ No ☐
 (c) with mutual consent Yes ☐ No ☐
 (d) against the wishes of your husband Yes ☐ No ☐
 (e) against the wishes of your in-laws Yes ☐ No ☐

20. Please specify the main reason for your taking up a job:
 (rank 1, 2, 3, according to your preference)

- (a) To supplement family income ☐
 (b) To have better standard of living ☐
 (c) To use your educational/professional training ☐
 (d) To use your spare time ☐
 (e) To have social interaction ☐
 (f) Any other reason, specify ☐

21. Would you give up your job if,

- (a) The income of your father/husband increases ☐
 (b) Your father/husband gets transferred ☐
 (c) Your in-laws/parents ask you to leave the job ☐
 (d) Domestic help is not available ☐
 (e) Your male-colleagues harass you ☐

22. (i) Is domestic help available to you? Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If so, specify:

(a) Servants -- (i) whole time (nos.) ☐

(ii) part-time (nos.) ☐

(b) Family members ☐

23. Specify any other special circumstances or influence which motivated you to take up a job:

24. What type of job would you prefer (rank according to your priority);

Sl.No.	Preference criteria	Priority No.
	(a) Convenient timings	
	(b) Non-transferability	
	(c) Less-need of travelling	
	(d) Suitable distance from home to office	
	(e) Level of earnings	
	(f) Bright career prospects	
	(g) Should be approved by husband/father	
	(h) Any other reason, specify	

III. INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

25. Kindly indicate the approximate total monthly income of the family:

Rs. _____

26. Sources of family income (Monthly):

Sl. No.	Source	Husband/Father	Other Family Members	Self	Total
(a)	Salary				
(b)	Business/Trade				
(c)	Agriculture				
(d)	Interest/Dividends				
(e)	Remittances				
(f)	Property				
(g)	Any other				

27. If married, is the household expenditure contributed:

- (a) By you alone ☐
- (b) By your husband alone ☐
- (c) By both you and your husband ☐
- (d) If so, what is your contribution to the expenditure (give in %)

How much do you contribute to the family income (give in %)

28. If unmarried, do you:

- (a) spend all your salary on your needs? ☐
- (b) give a part of it to your parents. ☐
- (c) If so, how much do you contribute to the expenditure (give percentage)

What is your contribution to the family income (give in %)?

29. What is the expenditure structure of your family and yourself?

Sl. No.	Items of expenditure	Amount spent by your family (Rs.)	Amount spent by you (Rs.)
1.	Food		
2.	Fuel and Electricity		
3.	Clothing and Footwear		
4.	Medical expenses		
5.	Education		
6.	Transport		
7.	Entertainment		
8.	Rent		
9.	Domestic Servants		
10.	Other items		
	Total		

30. Kindly give the details of how you spent your own income?

Sl.No.	Item of Expenditure	Amount spent (Rs.)
1.	Food	
2.	Your conveyance	
3.	Recreation	
4.	Personal needs	
5.	Insurance premium	

31. Give details of your personal savings and assets:

Sl.No.	Items	Owned individually	Owned jointly	Total
1.	Land			
2.	Building/Residential			
3.	Jewellery			
4.	Fixed deposits			
5.	Postal savings			
6.	Shares			
7.	Durable goods			
8.	Any other, specify			

32. Please specify, the major items which you are able to buy with your salary and which your husband's/parent's salary alone would not have been able to afford.

- (a) It is contributed towards your clothes, cosmetic and personal needs ☐
- (b) It is contributed towards the daily food requirements ☐
- (c) Helps to provide good education to children/brother and sister ☐
- (d) Helps to live in a better house ☐
- (e) Helps to maintain a conveyance ☐
- (f) Helps to save something ☐

IV. EMPLOYMENT PARTICULARS

33. Give brief account of your job history:

Work Experience	Designation	Nature of Duties	Date of joining	Date of leaving	No. of years	Salary
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5. Present job.						

34. Name and address of Employer : _____

35. What is the nature of your present establishment:

- (a) Private Sector
- (i) Act establishment ☐
- (ii) Non-Act establishment ☐

(b) Public Sector:

- (i) Central Government/Quasi Central
- (ii) State Government/Quasi state
- (iii) Local bodies

36. If private sector employee:

- (i) Would you prefer to go in for a public sector job?
Yes ☒ No ☐

(ii) If yes, tick the appropriate reasons:

- (a) There is no discrimination in recruitment practices ☐
- (b) There is no earnings difference ☐
- (c) Pension facility after retirement ☐
- (d) Other monetary benefits ☐
- (e) Limited working hours ☐
- (f) Any other, specify ☐

37. If public sector employee:

- (1) Would like to doing a private sector job?
- Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) Tick the reasons for your liking:

- (a) Better career prospects ☐
- (b) Better salary and other allowances ☐
- (c) Working hours suits you more ☐
- (d) Your family has a liking for private sector job ☐
- (e) You yourself like it ☐
- (f) You can obtain it easily ☐
- (g) Any other, specify ☐

38. What is the nature of your work? Is it a:

Part-time ☐ Full time ☐ Permanent ☐ Temporary ☐

39. Does your job require travelling?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, give average days per month : _____

40. (i) What are your working hours? is it:

(a) Fixed hours ☐

(b) Indefinite hours ☐

(c) Late evening duties as well ☐

(ii) Give how many hours you work daily : _____

(a) Timing and Duration : _____

41. (a) What is the distance between home to the workplace?
(in Kms.) _____

(b) How much time is required to reach there? _____

(c) What is your mode of transport?

Scooter ☐ Rickshaw ☐ Bus ☐ Temp ☐ Car ☐

(d)(i) Do you have your own conveyance? Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) Do you hire a conveyance? Yes ☐ No ☐

(iii) Do you accompany your father/husband? Yes ☐ No ☐

(iv) Do you walk down to your workplace? Yes ☐ No ☐

(v) Any other, specify,

42. What are your total monthly emoluments(Rs)?

(a) Basic : Rs. _____

(b) Dearness Allowance : Rs. _____

Total Salary : Rs. _____

(c) House Rent : Rs. _____

(d) Provident Fund : Rs. _____

(e) City Compensatory Allowance : Rs. _____

(f) Other allowances : Rs. _____

Total income : Rs. _____

43. Do you get the following allowances and facilities?

Sl. No.	Items	Amount/Rate
(a)	Contributory Provident Fund	
(b)	Bonus	
(c)	L.T.C.	
(d)	Medical Allowance	
(e)	Travelling Allowance	
(f)	Retirement Gratuity	
(g)	Pension	
(h)	Overtime	
(i)	Any other, specify	

44. What sort of leaves are granted to you?

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| (a) Casual Leave | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (b) Medical Leave | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (c) Earned Leave | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (d) Leave without pay | <input type="checkbox"/> |

45. Does your establishment have provision for maternity leave?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, duration :

Maternity benefits :

Is it given : (i) with pay ☐

(ii) without pay ☐

46. Have you ever taken maternity leave?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how many times :

Duration :

Give details of leaves in the past years?

S.No.	Leave	No. of days	Reason
(a)	Casual		
(b)	Medical		
(c)	Long		

47. Is there any provision for over time working?

Yes ☒ No ☐

(i) If yes, do you like/dislike/feel indifferent towards overtime working?

(ii) If you do over-time is it due to:

- (a) there is no choice ☐
- (b) the salary is not sufficient ☐
- (c) You enjoy utilising your time ☐
- (d) money offered is fair enough ☐

(iii) If no, is it because of:

- (a) you don't like being out late in night ☐
- (b) your family doesn't like it ☐
- (c) money offered is not fair ☐
- (d) family needs you more ☐

V. LABOUR MARKET AND RECRUITMENT:

48. What was the method of recruitment for the job/jobs?

Method of recruitment	1st job	2nd job	3rd job	Present job
1. Competition: (a) Written				
(b) Oral				
(c) Both				
2. Through Employment Exchange				
3. Through Advertisement				
4. Through friends/relatives				
5. After husband/father's death				
6. Any other				

49. (i) Did you face any problem in dealing with employment exchange?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If yes, specify:

- (a) Bribery ☐
- (b) Constant visit for enquiry about vacancies ☐
- (c) Staff neglected you due to gender bias ☐
- (d) Delay in informing you about vacancies ☐

50. What was the time span between seeking and obtaining employment? (give in months)

- (a) First job : _____
- (b) Second job : _____
- (c) Third job : _____
- (d) Present job : _____

51. Is there any other problem you faced in securing job?

- (a) Harassment ☐
- (b) Repeated visits ☐
- (c) Bribery ☐
- (d) Delay in giving appointment inspite of clearing the exam. ☐
- (e) Any other ☐

52. Did you find any bias against female applicants in securing a job - if so give reasons:-

- (a) They are neglected due to absenteeism ☐
- (b) They are left out just to save extra monetary expenses (toilets, maternity benefits, etc.) ☐
- (c) Employer's conservative attitude ☐
- (d) It is a male dominated world ☐
- (e) Female employee will create distraction in work ☐

53. Do you feel it is more difficult for a woman to get employment as compared to man:

- (a) Equal chances
- (b) Better chances
- (c) Unfavourable

☐
☐
☐

If unfavourable give reasons:

- (a) Bias against women
- (b) Men are more educated
- (c) Employers are mostly men

☐
☐
☐

54. Do you feel women can compete equally with men for promotion:

- (a) On all grounds
- (b) Educational Ground
- (c) On ground of sincerity/hardwork
- (d) Any other reason

☐
☐
☐
☐

55. Do women and men have same likelihood being promoted?

Yes ☐ No ☐

56. What in your opinion is the reason for less chances of promotion for women:

- (a) Bias
- (b) Male domination
- (c) Women incompetent in handling number of subordinates.
- (d) Any other

☐
☐
☐
☐

57. Do you feel women are concentrated into those department/sector where promotion chances are:

- (a) More
- (b) Less
- (c) Nil

☐
☐
☐

VI. JOB SATISFACTION:

58. Are you satisfied with your job on following grounds?

Reasons	Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Indifferent
(a) Remuneration			
(b) Suitable Working hours			
(c) Chances of promotion			
(d) Security of services			
(e) Provision of maternity benefits			
(f) Decision making power			
(g) Any other			

VII. TRADE UNION ACTIVITY:

59. Are you a member of the trade union/employees union, if any of your establishment?

Yes ☐ No ☐

60. How many members are there in the Union?

Males : _____ Females : _____

61. How many unions are there in your organisation?

62 (i) Is the executive position open for both male and female members?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If no, specify the reason:

- (a) Women are themselves not interested ☐
- (b) Males don't like female in an executive capacity ☐
- (c) Union doesn't take up female issues ☐
- (d) There are only few female members ☐
- (e) Any other, specify ☐

63. Does the union take up women's issues to the management?

Yes ☐ No ☐

64. (i) Is the union active regarding maternity leave/benefit, matters of discrimination, etc?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If yes, how?

65. How frequently do you participate in the union meetings?

- (a) Occasionally ☐
- (b) Usually ☐
- (c) Not much ☐
- (d) Not at all ☐

66. Give reason for lack of active participation (if so):

- (a) Don't have time ☐
- (b) Family dislikes your participation ☐
- (c) Can't stay beyond office hours ☐
- (d) There are few female members ☐
- (e) Union don't take up female causes ☐

67. Should there be separate union for female workers?

Yes ☐ No ☐

68. Have you participated in protest meetings, gharao and strikes?

Yes ☐ No ☐

VIII. EXTENT OF DISCRIMINATION

69. Do you feel discrimination against females is build up into our system?

Yes ☐ No ☐

70. Do you agree that pre-entry discrimination manifests itself by:

- (a) Creating unfavourable conditions for females regarding education ☐
- (b) Parents stressing more on male child's food/clothing/education, etc. ☐
- (c) Discriminating in the field of study for male/female children ☐
- (d) Social attitudes of society ☐

71. Did you feel any of the following situation before taking up your job?

- (a) Your brother was more pampered by your parents ☐
- (b) You were denied higher education due to family constraints ☐
- (c) You were trained for jobs according to your sex ☐
- (d) You faced cultural restrictions in pursuit of your career ☐

72. (i) Do you feel that employer's are biased against female on the job?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If yes, how does such bias operate:

- (a) Preferring males for on the job training ☐
- (b) Giving males the decision making power ☐
- (c) Restricting females to low-income jobs ☐
- (d) Offering more promotion chances to males ☐
- (e) Creating problems in giving maternity leaves/benefits ☐
- (f) By offering different pay packets to male and female employees ☐

73. How many males and females are there in your:

	Male (No.)	Female(No.)
(a) Organization		
(b) Department		
(c) Section		

74. Do you have to share your room with:

- (a) Only women ☐
- (b) Mixed group ☐
- (c) You have a separate room ☐

75. (i) Do you face any problem in sharing your room(if so) with male colleagues?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If yes, then specify:

- (a) They treat you differently ☐
- (b) They harass you taking the advantage of your gender ☐
- (c) They put the pressure of their work on you ☐
- (d) You yourself can't feel free with them ☐
- (e) Any other, please specify ☐

76. Is your social interaction confined only with female colleagues?

Yes ☐ No ☐

77. How frequently do you interact with your male colleagues?

- (a) Quite frequently ☐
- (b) Very frequently ☐
- (c) Infrequently ☐
- (d) Not at all ☐

78. What is the attitude of your male subordinate?

- (a) They obey you ☐
- (b) They are respectful because of your sex ☐
- (c) They resent being under a women boss ☐
- (d) They are indifferent towards your sex ☐

79. What is the attitude of your superiors towards you?

- (a) They treat you on equal footing with your male colleagues ☐
- (b) They are defiant against you ☐
- (c) They don't consider you to be capable of taking major decisions ☐
- (d) They harass you by increasing workload on you ☐

80. (i) Do you feel that you are offered the decision making powers in consonance with your designation?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If no, please give in detail:

81. (i) Are you paid equal wages to your male colleagues in the same position?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) If not, How much lesser do you get? : _____

82. (i) Do you think you'll get the equal chance of promotion with your male colleagues?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(ii) Give instance in your own case, if present:

IX. DOMESTIC DUTIES, ROLE CONFLICT AND STATUS IN FAMILY:

83. (a) Do you have to look after the house on your own?

Yes ☐ No ☒

(b) If no, then to what extent the household responsibilities are shared by you (Use 'G' for Greater extent, 'S' for Some extent and 'N' for Not at all):

(i) Husband ☐(ii) Mother-in-law/mother ☐(iii) Servants : 1. Part-time ☐2. Whole time ☐(iv) Any other family member ☐

84. To what extent your family members help you in carrying out the following activities: (Put 'G' for greater extent, 'S' for some extent and 'N' for not at all)

Sl.No.	Items	Husband	In-laws/ Parents
(a)	Cleaning house		
(b)	Cooking		
(c)	Looking after children		
(d)	Education of Children		
(e)	Shopping for household requirements		

85. Who looks after the children in your absence?

(a) Husband ☐(b) In-laws or other family members ☐(c) Servants ☐(d) Do you avail Creche facility ☐

86. What are the main domestic chores you have to perform and how much time do they take everyday?

S.No.	Domestic Chores	Time devoted
(a)	Cooking	
(b)	Cleaning the house	
(c)	Buying for household requirements	
(d)	Teaching and care for children	
(e)	Being with the family	

87. To what extent are you able to cope with your domestic obligations and your work?

- (a) To some extent ☐
- (b) To a greater extent ☐
- (c) Not at all ☐

88. (a) Do you carry office work to home?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If yes, then what is the:

- (i) Frequency per week : _____
- (ii) Average time taken per week: _____

89. (a) Does anyone in your family object carrying your office work at home?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If yes, then who?

- (i) Husband ☐
- (ii) In-laws ☐
- (iii) Children ☐
- (iv) Parents ☐

90. Do you think combining domestic work and office work is adversely affecting your health?

Yes ☐ No ☐

91. (a) Has there been any conflict of roles in the past?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If yes, how did you solve it?

92. (a) Do you think there is tension in your family because of your job?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If yes, will you leave the job?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(c) If no, then how'll you solve it?

(i) By being extra considerate ☐

(ii) By pampering children ☐

(iii) Gifts for family members ☐

(d) If you have to make a choice what will you prefer?

(i) Your job ☐

(ii) Your family ☐

93. Who takes the major decision in your family?

(a) Your husband ☐

(b) Yourself ☐

(c) Jointly ☐

94. Does your being in employment affect your say in the following aspect?

S.No.	Issues	No effect	Some effect	Greater effect
(a)	Monthly expenditure			
(b)	Purchase of durable goods			
(c)	Career of children			
(d)	Marriage of children			
(e)	Management of household			

95. What in your opinion is the effect of employment on the status of women in the family:

Sl. No.	Effect	No difference	Some difference	Substantial difference	Major difference
(a)	Respect				
(b)	Obedience				
(c)	Seeking advice				
(d)	Decision making				
(e)	Treated equally with males				

96. Do you think your taking up job had any adverse effect on:

- (a) Your relationship with other members of your family ☐
- (b) Your health ☐
- (c) Upbringing of your children ☐
- (d) Your married life ☐
- (e) Any other aspect, specify ☐

97. What is your opinion about the effect on family life when women work:

- (a) Working women can't devote enough time to their home and children ☐
- (b) Participation in the economic activities make women happier and they find it easier to adjust to life ☐
- (c) If the wife is working there is conflict of authority between husband and wife ☐
- (d) A working wife can understand her husband's problem ☐
- (e) There is not much economic gain by a wife's earnings because most of it is spent on the extra expenditure incurred due to her work ☐

98. (a) Do you think that the status of women in job is more favourable in society than a housewife?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If no, why do you feel so?

99. What impact your job has on you:

	Favourable	Unfavourable
(a) Independence		
(b) Personality development		
(c) Self satisfaction		

100. Do you have any suggestions to improve the status of women workers in your profession in terms of social and economic change?